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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this joint study is to review the situation of women workers in Japan and the United States, to accelerate efforts necessary for the improvement of their status, to contribute to the solution of the problem of women workers, and to promote mutual understanding and cooperation between the two countries. Divided into three sections, the first explores the problems of women workers in the United States: their status in terms of wage earning, racial balance, the job benefits, and educational qualifications: measures to benefit these workers (legislation, employment assistance, research, and organizations): and their current problems. The second section reiterates similar information for Japanese women. Each section, written by the respective governments, was reviewed and approved by both sides. The third section, "Looking to the Future," presents parallel statements by each country on eight items constituting areas in which action should be taken: broadening occupational opportunities: improving counseling, education and training of women: changing attitudes toward working women: problems of reentry into the work force: problems of women with dual responsibilities: implementation of laws prohibiting sex discrimination: reducing earning differentials between men and women; and increasing number of decision making positions for women. Appended are statistical data on women workers and related legislation for each country with explanations of surveys and terms. (FP)

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The Role and Status of Women Workers in the United States and Japan

A Joint United States–Japan Study

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INTRODUCTION

The Joint United States-Japan Study on the Role and Status of Women Workers was initiated under an agreement reached between the United States and Japan at the Ninth Joint United States-Japan Committee on Trade and Economic Affairs held in July 1973. On the basis of this agreement, the U.S. Department of Labor and the Japanese Ministry of Labor launched this study, the purpose of which was to review the situation of women workers in the two countries, to accelerate efforts necessary for the improvement of their status, to contribute to the solution of the problems of women workers, and to promote mutual understanding and cooperation between the United States and Japan.

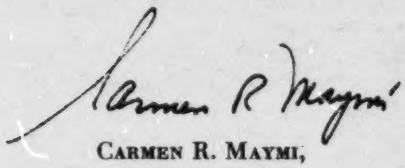
The Governments of the two countries compiled this report on the basis of an exchange of information and views, including statistical and other data, and the holding of meetings of the joint working group. This report is composed of three major parts: "Women Workers in the United States," "Women Workers in Japan," and "Looking to the Future." Basic statistical data, and an explanation of the sources from which they were compiled; legislative materials; and glossaries are included in the appendixes.

The chapters dealing with women workers in the United States and in Japan, which discuss the general situation of women workers, measures to benefit these workers, and their problems, have been written by the respective governments. The contents of the two papers were examined and approved by both sides. The chapter "Looking to the Future" presents parallel statements by the two countries on eight items mutually agreed upon as areas of common concern.

In developing this study, we have found that it is often misleading to attempt a direct comparison of the two countries and their situation related to women workers, because the countries differ substantially with respect to historical background and social and economic conditions. Differences in the economic and statistical data available also preclude a meaningful comparison of certain aspects of the status of women workers. Nevertheless, we share many of the same problems and we are influenced by many of the same trends in contemporary life. For these reasons we think it very useful to exchange information about the problems and countermeasures tackled within these two countries of different cultural climates. They are of particular importance to our joint efforts to improve and strengthen measures to assure women equal opportunity in the economic, legal, and social activity of their respective nations.

We hope that the exposition and analysis for each country of the current status of women workers, their special problems, and the mechanisms and instruments which have been developed to assist them will be especially helpful in suggesting areas and methods of effectuating improvement in the status of women. Decisionmakers who may find the study useful for such purposes include both governmental and nongovernmental labor policy planners, educators, employers, trade unions, and women's organizations. By a comprehensive look at the present status of women, it is our design to identify those areas that will require special attention in the future in order to promote equality for women workers by developing employment policies, practices, and services commensurate with their needs.

Finally, 1975 was designated as International Women's Year, aiming at the promotion of equality between men and women, full integration of women in economic, social, and cultural development, and increased contribution of women to international friendship and cooperation. We hope that the results of this study will promote the objectives and goals of International Women's Year so that significant progress can be achieved during the 1975 to 1985 decade.



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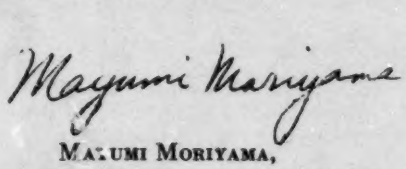

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Women Workers in the United States

THE PRESENT STATUS OF WOMEN WORKERS—Chapter 1

Characteristics of Women Workers

One of the most striking aspects of the role of women in the American economy today is the large number and proportion of women who are in paid employment outside of their homes and the increasing strength of their attachment to the work force. In recent years, women by the millions have continuously responded to the economy's demand for additional workers. Since 1965, nearly 60 percent of the net growth in the American labor force was accounted for by women (table 1). By early 1975, there were 36½ million women workers, and they accounted for 2 out of every 5 workers in the country's entire labor force. About 46 percent of all women in the population aged 16 and over were in the labor force, a proportion that rose to well over 50 percent for women aged 18 to 54 (table 2).

The extraordinary acceleration in women's labor force participation over the past decade resulted from changes in many areas—demographic, social, technological, and economic. These changes included large increases in the adult population due to the relatively high birth rates in the immediate post-World War II years, the development and increased availability of goods and services that made housework easier, more widespread acceptance of family planning and birth control, a softening of society's prejudice against working wives, the increasing demand for workers in white-collar and service jobs, and landmark legislation and court decisions prohibiting employment discrimination based on sex.

Marital Status

The most dramatic growth in labor force participation has occurred among married women living with their husbands. They account for almost three-fifths of all women workers; single (never married) women are a fifth; and formerly married or separated women are another fifth (table 3).

The preponderance of married women workers reflects two facts: (1) Even though proportionately fewer wives than single, separated, or divorced women work, a very large majority of the adult women in the population are married and living with their husbands. (2) Labor force participation rates are now relatively high even for married women (table 4). More than 4 out of 10 wives living with their husbands, including those with children under age 18, are in the work force. Of some 13½ million women in the labor force who have children under age 18, about 11 million are wives living with their husbands (table 5).

Although proportionately more single than married women work, the overall participation rate of single women is held down by the fact that many are still in school or seeking their first job. About the same proportion of separated women as of single women work but the proportion is higher for divorced women. Fewer divorced than married women have preschool-age children and, among those who do have children, the proportion who work is higher than it is for married women living with their husbands. A much smaller proportion of widows are in the labor force since a great many of them are elderly (table 6).

Younger children in the family continue to reduce the chances of a mother's working, but the participation rates of these mothers have risen steadily in recent years. In March 1974, the rates ranged from 31 percent for wives with children under age 3 to 51 percent for those with school-age children (6–17 years) and none younger. The participation rate for wives with no children under age 18, at 43 precent, falls between these rates because about half of these women were at least 55 years old, ages where the proportions of women working or looking for work are very low. If the age group for women with no children under age 18 is limited to those under 55, the participation rate would be 62 percent.

In families with children, labor force participation rates of wives rose between 1960 and 1974 as follows:

	Percentage points
Wives with children 5 years old or less	16
Wives with school-age children	12
Wives with no children under 18	8

Age

In the 1950's and early 1960's, the dramatic increases in labor force participation took place among the older women aged 45 to 64. During these years, population shifts from farm to city brought many married women nearer to job opportunities and reduced the number who did unpaid family farmwork. In addition, there were rapid increases in job opportunities in sectors of the economy, such as education, medical care, and other personal services that traditionally have been dominated by women. The growth in these sectors was

caused in part by the postwar baby boom and in part simply by increased disposable family income, thus permitting greater expenditures on services and goods after basic necessities were purchased.

Since the mid-1960's, the greatest labor force increase, by age group, has shifted to the younger women. Labor force participation rates in ages 20 to 34 have risen by 14 percentage points in 10 years, and 9 percentage points for those 35 to 44 years old. During the same period, increases for women in ages 45 to 64 moved up very few percentage points.

The accelerated increases among younger women reflect not only their reduced child care responsibilities due to the declining birth rates of recent years, but several other changes. Among them are the greater proportions of women who have been to college and their greater propensity to be in the labor force; the generally expanding job opportunities in professional, technical, and clerical work; and the desire for additional family income as young families face rising prices in every area of consumer goods and services, including the costs of houses and apartments, home furnishings, and clothing.

One of the important effects of the recent increase in labor force participation among younger women is a modification of participation rate patterns as women move up the age scale (table 9). Even though women still move in and out of the labor force more than men, a growing proportion now remain in the work force more or less continuously. As in the past, their labor force participation begins to decline when they are in their late twenties. In their midthirties it begins to increase as children reach school age. The extent of the decline in the twenties age group is much smaller than it used to be. In the 1950's, labor force participation rates were about 11 points lower for women between 25 and 29 than for those 20 to 24. Today, the difference is about 4 points.

Worklife Expectancy at Birth.—The increased participation of women in the work force, especially of young women, shows up in a dramatic increase in women's worklife expectancy. As the following tabulation shows, women's worklife expectancy at birth has been growing for a long time but the most dramatic increase has occurred since 1950. There has, of course, been some increase in worklife expectancy at birth for both men and women as a result of increased life expectancy, but from 1900 to 1960, worklife expectancy of women tripled while that of men increased less than a third.

Year of birth	Women		Men	
	Life expectancy	Worklife expectancy	Life expectancy	Worklife expectancy
1900	50.7	6.3	48.2	32.1
1940	65.9	12.1	61.2	38.2
1950	71.0	15.2	65.5	41.9
1960	73.1	20.1	66 6	41.4
1970	[1] 74.6	([2])	67.1	[3] 41.3

[1] Estimates from Provisional Life Tables, National Center for Health Statistics, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.
[2] Not yet available.
[3] (Preliminary.) A Table of Expected Working Life for Men, by Howard N. Fullerton.

NOTE.—Estimates for 1970 are unpublished.

Source: Monthly Labor Review, June 1971, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, and Seymour Wolfbein, "Changing Patterns of Working Life," U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, 1963.

The findings of the 1960-based worklife data show that, on the average, after a 35-year-old married woman has had her last child and returned to the labor force, she could still be expected to work an additional 25 years—a substantial contribution to the country's productive capacity and her family's welfare. Many of these women have worked 3 or 4 years before marrying and continued to work until the birth of their first child. The study estimated that the birth of a child reduced the average time a married woman could expect to be in the work force by about 10 years. The birth of each additional child appeared to cut the worklife expectancy by 2 to 3 years. Women who marry at age 20 and who never have any children could expect a worklife of 35 years; those with only one child, a worklife expectancy of 25 years; and those with four or more children, 17 years. A more recent study now underway will probably show that the presence of children results in a smaller reduction in women's working lives.

Full- and Part-Time Work

The strength and seriousness of American women's attachment to the labor force is provided by data which show that when women work, most do so on a full-time (35 hours a week or more) basis; and when most look for work, they look for full- rather than part-time jobs (tables 10 and 11). On the average, about 7 out of every 10 employed women hold full-time jobs (table 12). Moreover, 2 out of 5 married women with husbands present and over half of the widowed, divorced, or separated women in the labor force work an entire year at full-time jobs, as the tabulation shows.

	Total, 16 years and over	Single	Married, husband present	Other marital status
Percent with work experience in 1973	53.6	67.4	52.0	46.1
Distribution of women with work experience (percent):				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Full-time jobs	68.1	59.2	68.9	76.6
50 to 52 weeks	41.9	33.1	42.6	52.1
27 to 49 weeks	12.2	9.1	12.9	13.4
1 to 26 weeks	14.0	17.0	13.4	11.1
Part-time jobs	31.9	40.8	31.1	23.4

Among married women, those with children are more likely to work part time and part of the year than those without children. The age of the child does not seem to be a major factor in the proportion working part rather than full time but does influence the proportion working year round.

The extensive movement in and out of the labor force for women with very young children is demonstrated by the fact that almost half of these women worked at least 1 week in 1973 but as of a given date (March 1974), fewer than a third were in the labor force.

	Population (thousands)	Percent of population: In labor force, March 1974	Percent of population: With work experience of 1 week or more in 1973
Total, 16 years old and over	47,324	43.0	52.0
With no children under 18 years	21,804	43.0	50.4
With children under 18 years	25,520	43.1	53.4
With children 6 to 17 years	13,268	51.2	58.9
With some children under 6, none under 3 years	5,027	39.1	49.0
With some children under 3 years	7,225	31.0	46.3

A substantial minority of women—about 3 out of 10—work only part time (less than 35 hours a week). By contrast, 1 out of 10 men works part time. Another 26 percent of the women work full-time weekly schedules but less than an entire year. The highest proportion of part-time work is found among women under 25 and those 65 and over. Students and teachers account for the large proportion of single women who work part year or part time.

Unemployment and Job Tenure

Even though the average American woman today may have a relatively long working life, the intermittent nature of many women's participation in the labor force raises their unemployment rates and reduces their average job tenure, which in turn reduces their hourly earnings and various supplementary benefits, such as pensions and vacations.

Unemployment rates are generally higher for women than for men, although the difference tends to narrow when the overall unemployment rate rises (table 14). (Usually in periods when the unemployment rate rises the proportion of women who seek work declines.) In 1974 the unemployment rate for women was 6.7 percent, compared with 4.8 percent for men. One reason for the usually higher unemployment rate for women is the fact that a higher proportion move in and out of the labor force because of family responsibilities. In 1974 proportionately twice as many women as men who were seeking jobs had reentered the labor market; by contrast, 39 percent of the unemployed women but 65 percent of the jobless men were seeking work because they had lost their previous jobs (table 16).

Both men and women in the United States change employers fairly frequently so that on the average a worker at retirement age has worked less than 15 years for the same employer (table 17). Women's frequent movement in and out of the labor force reduces their periods of continuous service with the same employer substantially below that of men. Even in the 60 to 64 age group, when the difference in job tenure is smallest, women have worked an average of 5.5 years less for the same employer than have men. Tenure is likely to be as continuous for women past the childrearing stage of their lives as it is for men but they never make up for labor force participation lost in earlier years (table 18).

Job tenure is typically shorter for part-time than for full-time women workers. Many part-time workers either temporarily drop out of the labor force or take different jobs during the school holiday period of their children or shift jobs when the hours of school attendance of their children change. In addition, some women seek part-time jobs to supplement family income for a one-time purpose; for example, to finance school expenses of their children or to purchase a home.

Industries and Occupations in Which Women Are Employed

In 1974 approximately 21 million of the 30 million women in nonagricultural employment were in three industry groups: services—7.4 million, trade—7.0 million, and government—6.3 million (table 20). Manufacturing, the major employer of men, ranked fourth, with 5.8 million women employees. Over 7 million women were in health services and education in the private and public sectors. In retail trade, 2 out of 3 employees in department, clothing, and accessory stores and drug stores and more than half the employees in eating and drinking establishments were women. Women made up slightly more than half of the employees in finance, insurance, and real estate.

Women are employed predominantly in white-collar occupations; 60 percent are in such jobs compared with 40 percent of the men. Almost 4 out of 10 women in nonagricultural industries in 1970 were in clerical and similar jobs; about 1 out of 6 employed women were in service occupations, excluding private household service; and almost as many were in a professional or similar occupation (table 21).

In 1974 about half of all women workers were in 12 occupations—secretaries, typists, cashiers, retail trade sales workers, bookkeepers, private household workers, school teachers, registered nurses, nurses' aides, waitresses, in sewing occupations, and cleaning services.

Although proportionately more men than women are in blue-collar jobs, the difference is accounted for

largely by the fact that 22 percent of male employees are in skilled craft and similar jobs, compared with 2 percent of the women. Among white-collar jobs, much larger proportions of men than women are in managerial or administrative work. In other words, although women have made inroads into some occupations dominated by men, they are still concentrated in traditional women's jobs. Many jobs in the service industries can be described as extensions of homemaking. Moreover, these industries and retail trade provide more opportunities for part-time employment than other industries. The service trades also employ full-time workers at times outside the standard 9–5 o'clock schedule found in many industries and thus permit women to work when their husbands or older children are home to care for young children.

Nearly all women college graduates who work outside the home are in white-collar occupations, with 70 percent holding professional and technical jobs. By contrast, of the women workers who have not completed high school, half are service workers and operatives. Among women workers who have completed high school but have not gone to college, almost half are in clerical work and a tenth are in professional and managerial work, but about 30 percent are service workers or operatives.

Women now account for 1 out of 11 physicians and more than 1 out of 6 medical students. Almost 1 out of 20 lawyers and 1 out of 5 law students is a woman. Women are still rare in skilled blue-collar occupations. About 37 percent of the bus drivers in 1974 were women, but many of these drove school buses part time.

Proportionately fewer women than men are self-employed, though self-employed women in nonagricultural industries now number about 1.5 million. Most of these women are in service and retail trade industries; they operate beauty shops, laundries, dressmaking establishments, child care facilities, nursing homes, or some sort of educational service (table 22).

Earnings and Income Contribution

Like men, women get most of their income from paid employment. More than 75 percent of the aggregate income of women in 1973 was from wages and salaries, about 10 percent was from social security and similar benefits, and only 3 percent was from welfare and public assistance payments; the rest is accounted for by investment income, self-employment, and other sources.

A woman's earnings are dependent on such variables as education and occupation. Among women 25 years old and over, those with 5 or more years of college had a median income of $8,935 in 1973, compared with $6,215 for those with 4 years of college and $3,970 for those with a high school diploma only. By occupation, median earnings for women who were employed year round full time in clerical jobs were about $6,500; as operatives, $5,420; as professional-technical workers, $9,100; and as managers and administrators, $8,000. In each of these four broad occupational groups, women's earnings, on the average, were considerably less than those of men who worked year round full time: clerical—61 percent of men's earnings; operatives—56 percent; professional-technical—64 percent; managers-administrators—53 percent. The lowest ratio of women's-to-men's year-round full-time earnings was 38 percent among sales workers; the ratio for all employed was 57 percent (table 23).

With the dramatic rise in the proportion of married women who work, even among mothers with preschool-age children, the multiearner family has become more prominent (table 24). In nearly half of all husband-wife families, both husband and wife were earners in 1973. The contribution of the wives' earnings to family income varies from the 26-percent median for all wives with earnings to 38 percent where the woman works year round full time (table 25).

In a recently published summary of the weekly earnings of men and women in May 1974, the overall trend from 1967 to 1974 shows that median usual weekly earnings of full-time women workers remained about three-fifths that of men (tables 26 and 27). During this same 7-year period, the earnings of both men and women rose about 60 percent; however, after allowing for inflation, the rise was only 10 percent. The last earnings survey in May 1974 showed that women in full-time jobs earned an average of $124 a week. Earnings of women working full time varied from $49 for private household workers to $188 for professional and technical workers. The following tabulation shows median weekly earnings in May 1974 of women employed full time in various occupational groups and women's earnings as a percentage of men's:

Broad occupational group	*Median weekly earnings of women, May 1974*	*Women's earnings as a percentage of men's*
Professional-technical	$188	72
Managers-administrators	161	59
Clerical	129	67
Sales	95	43
Crafts	127	59
Operatives except transport	107	63
Service	92	61
Private household	49	.....
Total, employed full time	$124	61

The earnings differential between men and women reflects a number of factors, including the differences in the occupations and industries in which men and women are employed in large numbers and differences in lifetime work experience. The longer a woman has worked the higher her earnings are likely to be. For example, in the prime working age group (25 to 54),

married women earn less than single women. In large part, this is because wives typically interrupt their work careers and are not able to build up the seniority that makes them eligible for higher pay in many firms. In addition, many wives who reenter the labor market in the middle years must take starting level jobs.

The higher proportion of men in craft and other skilled blue-collar jobs and in managerial work has been briefly discussed earlier. Average pay is also relatively low in trade and service industries in which employment of women is concentrated (table 28).

The narrowest gap for full-time workers is in the Postal Service, where the median weekly earnings of women are 96 percent of the earnings of men. All Postal employees have the same quasi-public employer and are covered by the same pay scale, and there is a heavy concentration of men and women at the same skill level.

Smaller proportions of working women than of working men are union members, or they work in unionized establishments where pay levels are higher on the average. Women comprise 4 out of 10 members of the labor force but only slightly more than 1 out of 5 union members (about 1 out of 4 members of unions and associations). Half of the industries in which women comprise at least 40 percent of the work force—services, finance, textile manufacturing, local and Federal government—have fewer than 25 percent of their work force organized. The white-collar occupations in which women predominate are also less organized than blue-collar work.

In general, also, the difference between the earnings of men and women within an industry was smaller in unionized than in nonunionized establishments. Unionized workers, both men and women, earned substantially more than nonunion workers. Differences between earnings of unionized and nonunionized workers reflect, at least in part, differences in the industries in which they are concentrated and also differences in establishment size. Part-time workers are also more often employed in nonunion establishments than are full-time workers (tables 29 and 30).

Recent Changes in Women's Labor Force Activities Due to Social and Other Trends

The current role of women in the U.S. economy, outlined in the previous section, represents great changes over the past 2 or 3 decades and indeed in some cases, over the past 5 years. Many changes are still in process, and it is difficult to forecast the rate of labor force participation and the occupations in which women will be employed a decade from now.

The increased employment of women has been a major factor in the continued rise in the Nation's standard of living. In turn, the increased participation of women in work outside the home is traceable to a number of factors, including development or increased availability of goods and services that made housework easier; more widespread acceptance of family planning and development of new birth control techniques; a change in society's attitude toward working wives and mothers—in part a reflection of higher levels of education; the increasing demand for workers in white-collar and service jobs; the continued movement of the population out of agriculture; rising divorce rates and other factors leading to increased proportions of families headed by women; and legislation and court decisions prohibiting employment discrimination based on sex and promoting equal pay for equal work. These factors are themselves interrelated—for example, presumably legislation and even court decisions are affected by demands for added employment opportunities as women become better educated and less burdened by household tasks.

Farm Women

In the 1950's and early 1960's, population shifts from farm to city brought many women nearer to job opportunities and reduced the number who did unpaid family farmwork. Farm women now account for a relatively small proportion of the U.S. population and those who live on farms remain less likely (40 percent) than other women (about 45 percent) to be employed outside the home (table 31). Part of the difference in their participation in the labor force is explained by the fact that they are much older, on the average, than nonfarm women. Half of all adult women residing on farms in 1973 were 45 or older, compared with 29½ years for nonfarm women (table 32). Still, 4 out of 10 farm women do hold paid jobs and two-thirds of the employed farm women work in nonagricultural industries.

Age and Working Mothers

In the past decade, the growth in labor force participation has been concentrated among women under age 35; the fact that about half of the women in the American labor force are under this age reflects in part the very rapid increase in this age group in the total population resulting from high birth rates immediately after World War II. In part it is due to factors described earlier, which contribute more to increased labor force participation of this age group than to work by older women. Most notable has been the steep cut in the birth rates of young married women in recent years. In addition, work by younger women has been facilitated by changed attitudes toward the role of women and especially mothers (which have also made it easier for women of child-bearing age to work

outside the home); higher educational achievements, including the increased proportion who have completed college, and expanding professional, technical, and clerical job opportunities. Also, there is desire for additional income as young families face rapidly rising prices.

The number of working mothers with children under age 18 increased 12 percent between 1970 and 1974. Nearly 27 million children had working mothers in 1974—22.2 million in families with both parents present and 4.6 million in families headed by women. Between 1970 and 1974, the 1.2-million net increase in the total number of children with working mothers occurred almost exclusively in the families headed by women (tables 33 and 34).

Female Family Heads

The growing proportion of women who are heads of families and the increased pressures on these women to work also affected the overall increase in women's labor force participation. In April 1950, only 9.4 percent of all families were headed by women. By March 1974, the proportion was 12.4 percent. Half of this entire increase took place between 1970 and 1974. The proportion of divorced and separated women in the population grew, and an increasing number of single women also became heads of families.

The divorce rate in the United States increased to 3.5 per 1,000 persons in the population in 1970 and was 4.5 percent in 1974 (compared with 2.1 to 2.6 percent from 1950 to 1967). The labor force participation rate for divorcees age 20 to 54 is 80 percent, reflecting primarily their need for additional income but also in part the fact that the proportion of divorcees with preschool-age children is considerably lower than for married or separated women. Even so, with children under age 6, divorcees have a much higher participation rate (66 percent) than the other mothers of young children.

Of the 6.8 million women who headed families in 1974, 3.7 million were in the labor force (table 35). Most of these divorced, separated, widowed, or single women have children under 18 (table 36). Despite the large number of women workers who are family heads, only slightly more than half of all women family heads in the population as a whole (compared with 84 percent of the men family heads) are in the work force. Women family heads tend to be a somewhat older group, on the average, than married women. In addition, many of the older women are ill-equipped to earn an adequate living; they either have had insufficient preparation for today's work, or irregular work histories.

Education

Nearly three-fourths of the women in the labor force have completed high school (12 years or more of education) (table 37). The greater amount of education a women has received the more likely she is to be in the labor force and the less likely she is to be unemployed (tables 38 and 39). About 1 out of 2 women high school graduates (51 percent) is working or looking for work (for married women the proportion is less—46 percent). However, for women college graduates, the proportions in the labor force are greater—roughly 6 out of 10 married and formerly married women are in the labor force compared with 8 out of 10 single women.

Although impressive gains have been made in educational levels for both men and women, the average educational level of men workers in the United States now is approximately the same as for women. Higher proportions of women than men workers have completed high school but smaller proportions have completed college. Twenty years ago, women workers were, on the average, considerably better educated than men. The removal of this gap is explained in part by the educational assistance made available to the millions of veterans after World War II. In 1952 the median school years completed by working women was 12.0, while for men it was 10.4 years. Today 12.5 is the median years of school completed by both men and women workers. The more modest increase in the educational level of women workers since 1940 can be associated with the rapid growth of the number of women in the work force. The labor market in 1940 was more oriented toward the better educated women, but after World War II and the shift in employment concentration from goods to service-producing industries, jobs for less educated women became more plentiful.

Race

Most women workers (87 percent) in the United States are white. Work force participation rates have been historically lower for white women than for women of Negro and other races. At the present time, however, this difference appears to be narrowing, primarily because of the participation rates of young women—higher among white than black teenagers and much the same among young women 20 to 24 years old of all races.

The longstanding differences in married women's work experience by race and presence and age of children was evident in 1973 when black mothers in husband-wife families continued to have a higher rate of work experience and proportionately more had children than did white mothers. Despite this, their earnings were not enough to bring black family income up to white income although they narrowed the overall gap. For example, in families where the father was employed, 58 percent of the black children and 40 percent of the whites had mothers in the labor force. Yet, the $13,010 median income in 1973 among the multiworker families of black children was substantially below the

median for the families of white children with employed fathers ($15,000+), regardless of their mothers' labor force status (table 40).

Occupational and Industrial Shifts

Such changes as have occurred in the occupational profile of women and the industries in which they are employed in greatest numbers have reflected primarily the shift from a predominantly goods-producing to service-dominated economy rather than any drastic movement of women into occupations formerly the province of men. Actually, since women were already employed more extensively in the growing sectors of the economy than in other industries, the industry shifts were relatively minor. Between 1964 and 1974, most of the 10.4 million women labor force entrants or reentrants found jobs in the fastest growing industry divisions: services—3.0 million, government—2.6 million, wholesale and retail trade—2.4 million, manufacturing—1.3 million. During the 30-year span from 1940 to 1970, about 60 percent of all service industry employees have been women. Manufacturing has declined to fourth place as an employer of women; some of the nondurable goods industries in which they have been concentrated—textile mill products and food and kindred items—have introduced processes and equipment that have permitted output to be expanded without corresponding increases in employment.

Women have registered gains in some professions and other occupations that have historically been "men's occupations," but most of these changes are only beginning to be significant (see a section later on women in nontraditional jobs).

With the growth in the importance of white-collar occupations, the occupational pattern for women changed from half blue- half white-collar to one in which more than 60 percent of the women employed outside agriculture are in white-collar jobs. Almost all the gain was in clerical and sales jobs, where employment increased from 30 to about 45 percent of all employed women. At the end of this period, professional and managerial and related jobs employed 1 out of 4 men, compared with 15 percent in 1940, but there was little gain in the proportion of women in such jobs.

Over half of the entire increase in women's jobs in government between 1964 and 1974 occurred at the State and local levels in education. This increase in educational employment opportunities is not likely to continue, but opportunities in health and welfare services will presumably continue to grow.

The rate of expansion of retail and wholesale trade is expected to slow during the rest of the decade because of the greater use of computers, automated equipment, self-service stores, and vending machines.

There has been a substantial increase in the number and proportion of women who are self-employed, in part because many women have traditionally been proprietors of establishments in the growing service sector. In 1974, women constituted a fourth (26 percent) of all self-employed workers, compared with 17 percent in 1940. The gain in self-employment was proportionately somewhat greater than their increase in labor force participation.

Earnings

Over the past 7 years (May 1967 to May 1974), overall weekly earnings of women workers increased from $78 to $124, on the average, while men's pay increased from $125 to $204 (increases of 59 and 63 percent, respectively).

In the future, it can be expected that as lifetime work experience of women increases and women are employed in greater numbers in higher paying occupations, the gap in earnings between men and women will be reduced. The limited inroads women have made into higher paying men's occupations are described in the following section.

Women in Nontraditional Jobs

Almost from birth, girls in the United States have been taught to conform to certain more or less stereotyped roles. Generally, these teachings influence their education and career decisions. Until recently, most American women have chosen occupations that are thought of as women's jobs. Many are dead end and low paying. The occupations in which large numbers are concentrated were described earlier.

Today, efforts to end this stereotyping are beginning and the proportion of women entering traditionally male careers is growing. However, the most recent census data available—for 1970—indicate that while employment of women in the traditionally male-skilled occupations increased substantially, the proportion of women in these jobs is still very small, as the tabulation indicates.

Occupation	Number of women in—		Percent increase	Percentage of employed women in—	
	1960	1970		1960	1970
Craft and related occupations	277,000	495,000	79	3.0	5.0
Carpenters	3,000	11,000	267	.4	1.3
Mechanics and repairers	18,000	49,000	172	.9	2.0
Bus drivers	18,000	66,000	267	10.0	28.0
Managerial occupations	780,000	1,100,000	41	14.0	17.0
Engineers	8,000	20,000	150	.9	1.7
Lawyers and judges	7,000	13,000	86	3.0	4.8

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Women have apparently made even more rapid inroads into skilled and professional jobs since 1970 (table 41). Information from the 1974 Current Population Survey indicates that the number of women in managerial jobs may have increased by about 600,000 since 1970, or about 50 percent. Some indication of further growth is provided by the fact that the proportion of law students who are women increased from 7 percent in 1969 to 20 percent in 1974, and the proportion of women among all medical students increased from 9 to more than 18 percent. Vocational school data show that the number of women enrolled in technical programs has increased by 44 percent in the past 5 years, while the increase in the number enrolled in trade and industrial training programs amounted to 80 percent. The precedent established by the landmark equal opportunity conciliation agreements of the American Telephone and Telegraph Co. and Bank America should also result in opening additional managerial and other high paying jobs to women.

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MEASURES FOR WOMEN WORKERS—Chapter 2

Measures by the Government

Basic Policy

The Federal Government has long acted on its acknowledged responsibility to improve the working conditions, opportunities for profitable employment, and other aspects of the welfare of wage earners, both men and women. Some State efforts to protect workers antedated the Federal legislation.

Early State laws dealing with the workplace were concerned primarily with protecting women against exploitation and with special protection of their health and safety on the job. The States extended health and safety protection to men in especially hazardous working situations. The Federal effort until recently was focused on improving work standards and access to work for both men and women. In the past decade, the Federal interest broadened to assuring equal pay for equal work and equal opportunities for men and women, and to comprehensive safety and health regulations. The State effort broadened to include both men and women.

Both Federal and State Governments have long recognized the vulnerability of women to exploitation within the workplace and have acted to prevent such exploitation. Their recent shift in emphasis from special protection for women workers to equal employment opportunity (equality of access to all jobs, equal pay, and equality in all terms of employment and economic status) reflects changes in the interests of many women, and has come as part of a broader human rights movement to eliminate discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, national origin, or, in some instances, marital status, age, or mental or physical handicap.

Increasingly laws, and the agencies enforcing them, have become concerned with "systemic" discrimination more than individual complaints. Where courts have found patterns of employment that result in barriers against women or minorities, whether discrimination was intended or not, the Government has developed new policies with respect, for example, to recruitment, selection, placement, training, systems of transfer, promotion, seniority, and lines of progression. Further, it is now Federal Government policy to require Federal contractors to pledge "affirmative action." Affirmative action involves a survey by the employer to determine areas where minorities and women have not been given a fair share of the company's jobs at all levels, followed by the establishment of goals and timetables for correcting deficiencies. State or local governments, or private groups administering federally funded education and training programs must assure full participation or benefits regardless of sex, race, color, or national origin.

The special efforts to assure equality of opportunity have been accompanied by continued government efforts to improve wages, working standards, and the health and safety of all employees.

In the United States Federal system of Government, both the U.S. Government and State and local governments play a major role in regulating working conditions and work and income opportunities. The interpretation of the division of responsibility between the Federal Government and State and local governments has changed over time, with responsibility of the Federal Government being increased. Basically, the Federal Government has authority to set standards in employment affecting interstate commerce; this authority is now interpreted as applying to all but the smallest establishments. The States and localites can regulate any economic activity within their jurisdiction but where State and Federal laws are in conflict, the Federal law prevails unless it is specified that the State standard or the highest will prevail.

Once Federal laws or regulations are promulgated, procedures are established to assure compliance. Some Federal labor laws provide for enforcement by State agencies, with Federal financial assistance where State law and enforcement procedures meet the Federal standard. The State has sole authority over such issues as marriage and property.

Protective and Anti-Discrimination Laws and Executive Orders Now in Effect

Most regulation by the Federal Government is established by legislation passed by the Congress and approved by the President. In addition, the authority of the President, conveyed by the Constitution, includes the power to issue Executive orders to carry out powers that are the prerogative of the office.

State regulation is established by law, although frequently States delegate decisions about actual minimum wage rate levels and other standards to an executive agency.

Protective Labor Legislation for All Workers

Federal regulation of work standards is largely limited to establishing minimum wage rates and protecting occupational health and safety for all workers. Many State laws also set minimum wage rates and there are State laws to prevent workers from being defrauded of earned income and to regulate the frequency of wage or salary payments. Historically, however, State legislation was largely designed to provide special protection of women's pay and working conditions. (Because State laws are in a condition of flux as a result of policies against discrimination, they are discussed after these new policies are described.)

Except for payment of prevailing rates on certain Government contracts, the requirement of equal pay for equal work and requirement of premium pay for overtime, neither Federal nor State laws regulate wage rates above the minimum. Neither do they require or regulate provision of such supplementary benefits as holidays or other leave by private employers, although many employers by unilateral action or agreement with unions provide a wide variety of supplementary benefits. (Discussed later in this chapter and in chapter 3 are measures to protect the income of workers when they are laid off because of economic conditions, or occupational injury or illness, or when they retire because of age or disability, as well as measures to provide vocational training, placement, and other services designed to improve opportunities for work.)

The Federal *Fair Labor Standards Act* (FLSA), passed in 1938, establishes a floor for wages of both men and women in industries affected by interstate commerce and requires premium pay for work beyond a specified number of hours a week.

Since the law went into effect, minimum wage levels have been repeatedly increased and coverage expanded, most recently in 1974. At present, approximately 58 million of the 83 million wage and salary employees in the United States are covered.

The Wage and Hour Division of the U.S. Department of Labor enforces the FLSA with respect to all except Federal employees; the U.S. Civil Service Commission generally enforces it for Federal employees. Enforcement of the legislation was further strengthened by the 1974 amendments. (For more details, see appendix A, part 2.)

The purpose of the Federal *Occupational Safety and Health Act* of 1970 is "to assure so far as possible every working man and woman in the Nation safe and healthful working conditions and to preserve our human resources." The act, which went into effect on April 28, 1971, covers all private employers other than those subject to occupational safety or health standards under another Federal statute.

The Occupational Safety and Health Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor carries out the responsibility of the Secretary of Labor for promulgating and enforcing standards under the legislation; the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has responsibility for research and recommendations concerning standards. (See appendix A, part 2, for more information.)

Laws Against Discrimination in Employment

One of the most important legislative developments of the past decade has been the rapid enactment of laws against discrimination. This legislation has affected a variety of other laws, especially State legislation, that had established labor standards for women.

The laws against discrimination were not conceived at one time in a single comprehensive package. Initial enactments permitted many exemptions from coverage, differed in strength of enforcement mechanisms, provided differently for persons in public and private employment, and were assigned to different agencies for administration. Amendments broadened the laws and strengthened enforcement, and many laws and regulations were added to meet particular problems. As a result of the rapidity with which the laws were enacted and amended, there developed a substantial overlapping in the laws and in administrative responsibility. As a result, emphasis is now shifting from enactment of new legislation to emphasis on coordination of enforcement efforts among Federal agencies and to increased Federal-State cooperation.

The major Federal prohibitions on sex discrimination in employment appear in the Equal Pay Act of 1963, as amended; the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended; and the Executive order for Federal contractors (E.O. 11246, as amended by E.O. 11375 in 1967). Many States and local jurisdictions have taken comparable actions.

Equal Pay Act

The first Federal law against sex discrimination in employment was the Equal Pay Act of 1963, although several States had enacted equal pay laws much earlier and certain wartime Federal regulations had already established the equal pay principle.

The act prohibits an establishment from paying employees of one sex less than employees of the other sex for equal work on jobs requiring equal skill, effort, and responsibility and performed under similar working conditions. The work need not be identical but must be substantially equal.

The law permits earnings differentials based on a seniority system, a merit system, a system relating earnings to quantity or quality of production, or any other factor other than sex. It prohibits reducing the wage rate of any employee in order to equalize pay between the sexes. It also prohibits labor organizations

from causing or attempting to cause employers to violate the provision.

Most provisions of the act became effective June 11, 1964. As an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act, it applied to all employees covered by the minimum wage provisions of the FLSA. As of July 1, 1972, it was extended to executive, administrative, and professional employees and outside sales personnel (all exempt from the minimum wage and overtime pay requirements of the FLSA). Extension of the minimum wage provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act to government employees automatically extended the equal pay requirements to these workers.

The Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor administers and enforces the equal pay law. In a series of successful cases in Federal courts, including the U.S. Supreme Court, the Department has won both strong interpretations of the law and large awards of back wages, predominantly for women. This record has strengthened the government's capacity to win compliance without going to court. From July 1972 through April 1975, $17,652,276 in income was restored to 48,895 people under supervision of the Secretary of Labor or through court action brought by him. In addition, the equal pay portions of two major equal opportunity conciliation agreements has won back wages of nearly $7 million each. Employees have also won substantial amounts through private litigation. Even more significant than the back wages are increases in current and future pay rates.

Federal Government employees have had equal pay protection since the Classification Act of 1923 established a uniform salary scale for each grade and class of work, regardless of the sex of the worker.

All but 5 of the 50 States now have either an equal pay or broader fair employment practices law that prohibits pay discrimination based on sex. Generally, State equal pay laws are enforced by the State labor department; fair employment laws, by a human rights commission. At least one State has established a single agency to administer all laws concerned with either employment or human relations.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964

A milestone in equal employment opportunity for women was reached with the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title VII of that act, effective July 2, 1965, was broad in scope and coverage, prohibiting discrimination based on sex as well as race, color, religion, and national origin in all terms and conditions of employment.

Congress established the bipartisan Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) to administer the act, its five members to be appointed by the President. Over the years, the United States has found that creation of specialized administrative agencies or commissions is a more effective method of implementing legislation than through the courts alone. Such commissions quickly develop expertise which enables them to deal with the most difficult problems in their area of interest.

Initially powers of the EEOC were limited largely to investigation and conciliation, but in 1972 title VII was amended to strengthen enforcement and extend coverage.

Coverage now extends to private employers of 15 or more persons, public and private employment agencies, labor organizations with 15 or more members, educational institutions, and State and local governments. Not covered are private membership clubs and Indian tribes. A separate section of the law protects Federal employees and strengthens enforcement power of the Civil Service Commission.

Unlawful practices, if based on sex, race, color, religion, or national origin include:

For an employer

to discriminate in hiring or firing, wages and salaries, promotions, or any terms, conditions, or privileges of employment;

for a labor union

to discriminate in membership, or to classify or refer in any way which tends to limit employment opportunities; or to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate;

for an employment agency

to discriminate in classifying or referring for employment; *for any employer, labor union, or joint labor-management committee* to discriminate in training, retraining, or apprenticeship or to print or publish advertisements indicating discriminatory preference or limitation.

Discrimination against an individual for filing a charge opposing an unlawful practice, or participating in an investigation is also prohibited.

The provisions of the law are broad enough to encompass new and emerging forms of discrimination.

Exceptions are permitted when: sex is a bona fide occupational qualification reasonably necessary to the normal operation of the business, as in the case of an actor or a wet nurse. Religious institutions may employ persons of a particular religion to further their activities. Differentials in compensation may be based on a seniority, merit, or incentive system.

Because sex discrimination sometimes takes forms different from race discrimination, the EEOC has sex discrimination guidelines. They state that the bona fide occupational qualification should be interpreted very narrowly and bar hiring based on classification or labeling of men's jobs and women's jobs or advertising under male and female headings. Preferences of customers or existing employees should not be the basis for refusing to hire an individual.

The EEOC guidelines say that State laws that prohibit or limit employment of women (in certain occu-

pations, in jobs requiring the lifting or carrying of specified weights, for more than a specified number of hours, during certain hours of the night, and immediately before and after childbirth) discriminate on the basis of sex, because they do not take into account individual capacities and preferences. Thus, they are superseded by title VII. A series of court cases has upheld this guideline and the conflict between State and Federal laws on this point was for the most part resolved in the early 1970's.

In States with laws that require minimum and premium overtime pay only for women, on the other hand, employers covered by title VII are considered to be acting illegally if they refuse to hire women in order to avoid payment of minimum wages or overtime benefits or if they do not provide the same benefits for men. Similar provisions apply to other State employment laws such as those requiring special rest and meal periods or physical facilities for women; if an employer can prove that business necessity precludes providing the benefits to both men and women, the employer must not provide them to members of either sex. Since enactment of title VII, many State legislatures have acted to extend the benefits of women's laws to employees generally.

The guidelines prohibit denying employment because of pregnancy. They state that disabilities caused or contributed to by pregnancy, miscarriage, abortion, childbirth, and recovery therefrom are, for all job-related purposes, temporary and should be treated as such under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan available in connection with employment. Policies on accrual of seniority, reinstatement, and payment under insurance or leave plans are to be applied to disability caused by pregnancy or childbirth as to other temporary disabilities. This guideline has been challenged in the courts and final resolution awaits action by the U.S. Supreme Court.

The EEOC attempts to resolve complaints by conference, conciliation, and persuasion but it may file suit. The Commission may assist persons who take private legal action. If prompt judicial action is determined necessary, the EEOC or the Attorney General may seek a court order for relief pending final disposition of the charge.

Special provisions in title VII encourage States to enact and enforce equal employment opportunity laws, and the EEOC can provide technical and financial assistance to the States for this purpose. Forty States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have fair employment practices laws that include a prohibition of sex discrimination. When the EEOC receives a complaint from an individual in a State or local jurisdiction with an effective law, the agency administering that law must be given an opportunity to resolve the complaint before the EEOC can act.

Equal Employment Opportunity for Employees of Federal Contractors

The U.S. Government requires nondiscrimination as a condition of Federal contracts. This policy was put into effect through a Presidential Executive order, which has the force of law and is grounded in the inherent power of the President to carry out the constitutional duties of the executive branch of the Government.

Executive Order 11246, as amended by Executive Order 11375, effective October 14, 1968, prohibits employment discrimination based on sex, race, color, religion, or national origin, by Federal contractors or subcontractors or contractors who perform work under federally assisted construction contracts.

The Secretary of Labor has general enforcement responsibilities, including the power to promulgate general rules and regulations. Primary responsibility for obtaining compliance with the rules rests with the major Federal agencies that award contracts.

Within the Department of Labor, an Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) has been established to administer the order. Sex discrimination guidelines issued by the OFCCP are similar in many respects to those of the EEOC. Guidelines concerning maternity benefits and pensions now under discussion would bring these standards into greater conformity with the order.

Failure of a contractor to comply with the nondiscrimination pledges of the contract, or with the rules and regulations of the Secretary of Labor, may result in the cancellation, termination, or suspension of all or part of the contract. The contractor may be declared ineligible for further Government contracts.

Every contract exceeding $10,000 requires the contractor to take "affirmative action" to assure all applicants and employees equal opportunity. Most Federal contractors are also required (under Revised Order No. 4, issued in December 1971) to adopt a written affirmative action program. It is a set of specific and result-oriented procedures which contractors commit themselves to carry out by every good faith effort.

Under such plans, contractors are required to analyze all segments of their work force to see where minorities or women are underutilized, considering their availability for such work. Employers are to eliminate policies that cause this underutilization and to establish numerical goals and timetables for expanding job opportunities for groups previously denied such opportunities.

The Growth of Affirmative Action

The affirmative action obligation of Federal contractors is part of a broader movement toward reexamination of total employment systems. Experience in enforcement of equal employment opportunity laws has shown that discrimination cannot be overcome by

giving attention only to individual complaints. In recent years courts have recognized that by nature discrimination is not directed toward a single individual but is more often a network of deeply imbedded practices that place barriers to the full employment of certain groups. Affirmative action has come to be associated with comprehensive plans to identify and remove those barriers.

The examination of a whole employment system was a relatively new idea in the 1960's, but by December 1971 the Office of Federal Contract Compliance had sufficient experience with monitoring affirmative action programs for minorities to set forth specific requirements regarding both minorities and women in Revised Order No. 4.

EEOC sometimes requires affirmative action also, but on a somewhat different basis. Unlike the Executive order which makes affirmative action a contractual obligation, title VII does not require such positive programs until after a finding of a pattern of discrimination. Then the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission may set forth specific goals in a conciliation agreement, or Federal courts may order even more rigorous plans to remedy grievances and to offset the continuing effects of past discriminatory practices. The EEOC highly recommends voluntary affirmative action as the most desirable method of assuring fair employment practices and avoiding costly litigation.

A few State and city governments have begun requiring affirmative action of contractors doing business with them.

Age Discrimination in Employment

The Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967 prohibits employers, employment agencies, and labor unions from discriminating in employment against persons 40 to 65 years old. It is of particular importance to women who reenter the work force after extended periods of full-time family responsibility. It is administered by the Wage and Hour Division of the U.S. Department of Labor.

In 1974 the law was extended to civil service employees of State and local governments and interstate agencies. (Employment practices made illegal by the act are listed in appendix A, part 2.)

Thirty-three States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico prohibit age discrimination in employment. Most of these laws are enforced by human rights commissions.

For Federal employees, the Civil Service Commission nas general responsibility for enforcement of the 1974 amendments prohibiting age discrimination. Earlier, only a general statement of public policy existed, reaffirming the principles of the merit system in Federal Government and emphasizing the need to prevent discrimination against older people in Federal Government employment or advancement.

Equal Employment Opportunity in the Federal Civil Service

An Executive order, E.O. 11478, issued by the President on August 8, 1969, deals with discrimination in the Federal civil service. Although the Civil Service Act of 1883 permitted women to compete under the merit system, and the Classification Act of 1923 established uniform salary ranges, it was not until 1962 that the U.S. Attorney General ruled invalid an 1870 law that had been interpreted as giving Federal agencies the option to specify men or women in filling higher civil service positions. By 1967 an Executive order added sex to the civil service nondiscrimination policy and the Federal Women's Program was initiated under leadership of the Civil Service Commission. E.O. 11478 strengthened the equal employment opportunity program for Federal employees and directed the head of each executive department and agency to establish an affirmative action program for equal employment opportunity for all civilian employees and applicants for employment.

The provisions of the Executive order were given legislative support by Congress when title VII of the Civil Rights Act was amended in 1972 to strengthen the powers of the Civil Service Commission to prohibit discrimination. The Commission is authorized to provide appropriate remedies such as reinstatement or hiring, with or without back pay.

For the first time, an employee or applicant for Federal employment who is aggrieved by the final disposition of a complaint or by failure to take final action on a complaint was given the right to file a court suit.

Laws or Orders for Specific Situations

In addition to the laws and orders applying to a wide variety of industries, a number of recent Federal laws, orders, or regulations have prohibited employment discrimination in special occupations or industries. For example, title IX of the education amendments of 1972 specifically forbade sex discrimination in education. Other laws and regulations prohibited sex discrimination in programs for intergovernment exchange of personnel, in federally funded State extension services, and in some formerly closed occupations in the armed services. Some inequities in provision of benefits for spouses were removed. Virtually every Federal agency added some form of equal employment opportunity regulation in programs it administered.

Coordination of Enforcement

With most of the loopholes of earlier laws closed, a major need has developed in recent years for strong and well-coordinated enforcement. Amendment of title VII established an Equal Employment Opportunity Coordinating Council to develop agreements

and consistent policies among the agencies responsible for administering the various equal employment opportunity and equal pay laws and orders.

As a fruit of such coordination, a significant share of the total enforcement effort is devoted to seeking large industrywide conciliation agreements. For example, the major steel companies and unions signed an agreement with the EEOC and the Labor and Justice Departments to expand job opportunities for minorities and women. The consent decree required revision of hiring and assignment policies, modified the seniority system, and increased training and advancement opportunities for women as well as for black and Spanish speaking men. The companies also agreed to $31 million in back pay to employees adversely affected by previous practices.

In late 1974 the EEOC and OFCC agreed to share investigative files; consult on the selection of industrywide, companywide, or regional compliance targets and on the scheduling of investigations; and develop mutually compatible policies, including minimum standards of remedy.

State Protective Laws

A study of laws affecting women workers prepared 10 years ago would have dealt primarily with the "protective laws" many States had enacted for women. Many of these laws had been developed early in the century in recognition of the fact that women had neither the organization nor experience to protect themselves from rigorous working conditions and low wages. Many States had laws to establish minimum wages for women, to regulate their hours and other conditions of work, and to require that they receive equal pay for equal work. Many of these laws antedated Federal regulation (which, when enacted, applied to both men and women). State laws that limited hours of work or weights that could be lifted, though supported by many women's groups, nevertheless posed problems for those women who did not want these restrictions to exclude them from overtime, nightwork, and certain better paying occupations. As the workplace changed with automation, and as women developed experience in more skilled jobs during wartime, many saw that a major factor in women's low earnings was relegation to traditionally low-paid categories.

Little change in State laws took place until the Federal Government began to enact equal rights legislation. Even after enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 the result of the period of transition from special protection to equal employment opportunity has been mixed, with many States following—but some States challenging—EEOC guidelines that would invalidate restrictive laws but would not invalidate laws whose benefits could be extended to men.

By and large, State minimum wage benefits have been extended to men. By 1964, about half were enacted or amended to cover men and women; by now, all but three apply to both. Only one State repealed a minimum wage requirement for women. This State had a lower rate than the Federal minimum and Federal coverage is now far more comprehensive than it was in earlier years.

Premium pay for overtime remains an issue because a few States had required it for hours beyond 8 or 9 a day whether or not the weekly hours exceeded 40, the Federal standard. State administrations and Federal courts have differed on whether the daily premium pay requirements should be annulled or the employer required to pay it to both men and women.

Generally, special hours limitations for women have disappeared. In all of the 40 States that limited daily or weekly hours before the enactment of title VII, the restrictions have been removed or limited to the small employers not covered by title VII. State laws setting absolute limits on hours for both men and women generally apply only to very hazardous work or to jobs involving public safety, such as transportation.

A few States have examined proposals comparable to contract provisions won by some unions, requiring the employees' consent for extended overtime.

One State has provided hours protection for older workers and the handicapped only. Of the few States that set specific weightlifting limits for women, regardless of individual preference or capability, none is really enforcing such a standard. Nearly all have eliminated prohibitions on women working in specific occupations. Some States repealed requirements with respect to rest or meal periods and seats; some extended them to men.

Other Laws Affecting Women's Employment and Economic Status

As women began to achieve legislative goals directly affecting their employment rights, it soon became evident that a number of closely related areas affected their employability and economic status. High on the list was access to all forms of training and educational opportunity. Also important were the cost and availability of child care; social security benefits; private pensions; and access to consumer credit, purchase or rental of housing, and mortgage credit.

A number of programs affecting access to these benefits involved expenditure of Federal funds but there was no comprehensive ban on sex discrimination in all federally subsidized programs. In the Civil Rights Act of 1964 sex was a prohibited basis of discrimination in Title VII—Equal Employment Opportunity—but not in Title VI—Nondiscrimination in Federally Assisted Programs. Thus, separate laws were needed for each type of program supported by Federal money.

Title IX of the *Education Amendments of 1972* (approved June 23, 1972, as Public Law 92-318) states

that "No person in the United States shall on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any educational program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance."

The law was intended to eliminate restrictive quotas and unequal entrance requirements for colleges and universities and to require equality of opportunity for fellowship and scholarship aid and access to all course offerings and services. It also reaffirmed earlier prohibitions of discrimination in employment.

Covered by title IX are public or private pre-school, elementary, or secondary schools and institutions of vocational, professional, and higher education. Exempt are certain institutions controlled by religious organizations and schools for training individuals for the United States military services or merchant marine.

With regard to admissions, the antidiscrimination provision applies to institutions providing vocational, professional, and graduate higher education and most undergraduate institutions. Private undergraduate schools are exempt from the admissions provisions, but their educational activities and programs must not discriminate against any admitted students.

Earlier legislation had prohibited discrimination only in federally assisted schools of medicine and nursing and other health personnel training programs. In recent years, legislation funding training programs administered by the Employment and Training Administration of the Labor Department (formerly known as the Manpower Administration) has regularly included a prohibition of discrimination based on sex as well as race, color, and national origin.

In late 1974 the Women's Educational Equity Act authorized development of nonsexist curricula, new methods for training educational personnel, new techniques of guidance and counseling and career education, community and continuing education programs, and women's studies centers. Although Congress has not yet appropriated funds, public and private groups in some States and cities have begun to publicize schools' use of stereotypes about women's roles and curriculum omissions.

Anticipating the impact of the law, major publishers of textbooks have issued guidelines on avoiding language or pictures demeaning to women and on showing them in a wider variety of roles.

The *Equal Credit Opportunity Act*, enacted during 1974 and effective October 28, 1975, prohibits any creditor from discriminating against any applicant on the basis of sex or marital status. The act was the result of widespread and substantiated complaints of discrimination by creditors against women, particularly those who are divorced, widowed, or separated.

The law bans States from prohibiting the separate extension of consumer credit to each party to a marriage when each voluntarily applies for separate credit from the same creditor. Congressional conferees on the bill made it explicit that in such cases the credit granted to an individual will be his or her sole responsibility.

As of April 1, 1975, at least 38 States and the District of Columbia had enacted legislation prohibiting some form of sex discrimination in credit transactions. The laws vary widely in scope and enforceability.

The *Housing and Community Development Act of 1974* contains specific provisions to eliminate sex discrimination in federally related programs. The law expressly prohibits discrimination against women in granting federally related mortgage credit as well as in a new program of community development grants.

Specifically, the act amends the National Housing Act of 1949 to prohibit sex discrimination in the extension of mortgage credit, Federal insurance guarantees, or related assistance. Lenders are now required to consider combined incomes of husband and wife in granting federally related mortgage credit; usually in the past only the income of the husband was considered.

The Civil Rights Act of 1968 was also amended by the law to include a prohibition against sex as a basis for discrimination in the financing, sale, or rental of housing or in the extension of brokerage services. Discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin had previously been outlawed.

In 1973 women in the United States pressed Congress to recognize that the status of women within a society is one of the indicators of its level of national development and that United States aid to other nations should assist in the integration of women into the economies of these countries. An amendment to the *Foreign Assistance Act of 1973* now requires that U.S. aid programs be administered "so as to give particular attention to those programs, projects and activities which tend to integrate women into the national economies of foreign countries, thus improving their status and assisting the total development effort."

Proposed Legislation

Despite recent achievement of major legislative goals to prohibit discrimination against women in employment and education, a number of bills introduced in the 93d Congress were addressed to remaining problems in employment and the related subjects of pensions, child care, insurance, credit, and tax structure. Impetus was given to the formulation of such legislation when, in mid-1973, the Joint Economic Committee held hearings on the economic problems of women. Witnesses assessed progress for women under existing antidiscrimination laws, and explored women's access to credit and insurance; features of Federal income, estate, and gift tax law which have a disparate impact on women; the treatment of women under social security and private

pension plans; and sex discrimination in employment insurance, veterans' programs, and public assistance.

Since that time Congress has acted on discrimination in credit and taken first steps in pension reform. The promotion of part-time employment opportunities in Federal agencies received congressional attention but no final action. Other bills served to put forward ideas for discussion and future refinement in a variety of areas among which are the following:

Child Care Proposals

As the number of working mothers in the labor force has increased so has interest in child care facilities and programs. Among the proposals introduced were bills to set Federal standards for child care; to establish child development programs; to coordinate child care programs; to provide equipment, facilities, and personnel for child care programs; to set a uniform code for child care facilities; and to liberalize income tax deductions for the cost of child care.

Tax Proposals

Legislative proposals would have changed tax law provisions to reflect the increased importance of women and women family heads in the work force. Some proposals had conflicting or competing objectives. Tax bills would have extended to all unmarried individuals the full tax benefits of income splitting currently enjoyed by married individuals; provided for equal tax treatment of married individuals filing separate returns and unmarried individuals; extended the head of household benefits to unremarried widows and widowers and to individuals at least 35 years old who have never been married or have been separated or divorced for at least 1 year; and limited eligibility to file joint returns to marriage partners having equal ownership, management, and control of their income, assets, and liabilities; and liberalized child care deductions. Omnibus women's rights bills would have required the Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare to study and make recommendations with respect to the treatment of women under social security and tax laws.

Insurance

Problems of sex discrimination in disability, health, life, and automobile insurance were also the subject of proposed legislation.

Status of Pending Laws

All pending bills die with the adjournment of Congress, but comparable proposals have been introduced in the new (94th) Congress in 1975. In addition, new bills would amend title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to prohibit discrimination on the basis of marital status and would promote the use of flexible work schedules in Federal agencies so that employees could better meet the dual responsibilities in their personal lives and at work. One proposal already accepted, and effective for 1976, almost doubles the income limit for claiming child care deductions on Federal taxes.

Equal Rights Amendment

The landmark legislation and Executive orders described earlier in this chapter were enacted or issued under the existing constitutional authority of the Federal Government or the States. Many legal scholars, however, believe that it is desirable to amend the Federal Constitution to incorporate explicitly the principle of equality between men and women. Consequently, an Equal Rights Amendment dealing with a wider variety of issues than women's rights as workers (the focus of the earlier discussion here) was passed by the 92d Congress in 1972, and is now in the process of ratification by the States. (Amendments to the Constitution require a two-thirds vote of each House of Congress and ratification of three-fourths of the States after Congressional approval.) The proposed amendment reads:

> Equality of rights under the law shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex.
> The Congress shall have the power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.
> This amendment shall take effect two years after the date of ratification.

As of June 1, 1975, 34 of the requisite 38 States have ratified it.

Following the national trend, 13 States have adopted equal rights amendments to their State constitutions. In addition, there were equal rights provisions in the original constitutions of Utah (1896) and Wyoming (1890).

In the United States a series of Constitutional amendments have promoted equality among citizens. The Fifth Amendment (1791), among other things, protects citizens against arbitrary action by the Federal Government. The Fourteenth Amendment (1868) protects citizens against arbitrary action by State governments and guarantees equal protection of the laws to all persons. The Fifteenth Amendment (1870) guarantees that the right to vote shall not be abridged because of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. The Nineteenth Amendment (1920) guarantees women the right to vote, and the Twenty-sixth Amendment (1971) lowered the voting age from 21 to 18 years.

In theory the language of the Fifth and the Fourteenth Amendments is broad enough to ensure equality of men and women before the law. However, the Supreme Court, with rare exceptions, has ruled that women are not included in the definition of "person" and therefore are not protected by the 14th Amendment. It is this ambiguity concerning the status of women under the Constitution that needs clarification

by the Equal Rights Amendment. Ratification of the Equal Rights Amendment would strengthen Federal and State legislation and other regulations dealing with discrimination.

The steps leading to passage of the Equal Rights Amendment are described in appendix A, part 2.

Impact of ERA

The Equal Rights Amendment would require every State and local government, as well as the Federal Government to examine all laws, regulations, and government practices in order to remove unequal treatment of men and women.

It would, for example, assure equality in participating on juries, result in the nullifying of those State unemployment compensation laws that discriminate against women, and any laws that give the husband control over his wife's earnings or over property she has paid for. It would remove inequities, sometimes for men and sometimes for women, in the Federal social security system. Some Federal or State laws that have benefited only one sex would probably be extended to both.

Because of State equal rights amendments, the pending Federal amendment, or both, a few States have already begun to purge their laws of discriminatory language and of provisions which treat men and women differently. A few other States have taken preliminary steps along these lines.

At the Federal level, a number of steps, already initiated, will speed implementation of ERA once it is ratified. These are described in appendix A, part 2.

Assistance in Finding Employment

Both men and women in the United States typically use several methods, more or less simultaneously, in looking for a job. On the average, each worker reports that he or she tries about four methods to find a job. Most common, used by 2 out of 3 women, is direct application to employers. Asking friends about opportunities in the companies for which they work ranked second.

Direct application to employers was not only the most common way of looking for a job, but was the leading method by which women actually found employment. Answering newspaper ads proved to be the next most fruitful way for women to locate work.

About 3 out of 10 women use the government sponsored Federal-State system of employment offices to find work. This system provides those in the labor force or seeking to enter it, with major emphasis on special groups in the population, with a variety of types of assistance in finding employment. Included are counseling, testing, information on occupations, job development, and support services.

This Federal-State Employment Service was created in 1933 to facilitate employment of "men, women, and juniors." It operates in all States and the District of Columbia and has more than 2,200 local employment offices. The laws establishing the Employment Service (ES) as well as other employment and training programs are administered by the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor. The ES and other government employment and training activities have always been governed by a policy of nondiscrimination. It is the official policy of the Employment Service:

- To promote employment opportunity for applicants of both sexes on the basis of job qualifications for nontraditional as well as traditional employment.
- To encourage acceptance and use by employers of hiring specifications based exclusively upon job performance factors.
- To promote employer acceptance of women workers on the basis of their qualifications, and thus provide fuller utilization of the Nation's total human resources.

In providing employment service to women, the ES staff has both legal and professional responsibility to:

- Advise women of the full range of opportunities available, interpreting narrowly the bona fide occupational qualification exception as to sex, to provide few exceptions.
- Give full consideration to interests and aptitudes without prejudice.
- Avoid limiting referrals to lower paying jobs or to traditional "female" jobs.

In fact, however, the long tradition of limited and frequently interrupted labor force participation by women and of considering certain jobs as women's occupations and others as men's occupations has in the past had a substantial impact on actual functioning of the offices. Despite recent efforts to increase opportunities in new fields of employment, women job applicants to the ES are still heavily concentrated in clerical and service occupations, as the following tabulation and table 49 show:

	Percent
Clerical and sales	40
Service occupations, including waitresses, practical nurses	26
Bench work (sewing maching operators, assemblers, etc.)	12
Professional, technical, and managerial	8

The proportion seeking professional and related occupations is smaller than the proportion of women in these jobs in the economy, perhaps because women in these occupations move in and out of the labor force less often than other women, and in part because many women do not seek jobs through the public employment offices.

Of the women applicants in the year ending in June 1974, the ES placed 16.1 percent, compared with 17.3 percent of the men applicants (table 51).

Steps To Increase Placement of Women

In the past few years the Employment and Training Administration has taken a variety of steps to provide greater attention to placement of women. The Assistant Secretary of Labor for Employment and Training, who has responsibility for formulating and executing the Nation's employment and training programs, recently appointed a special assistant to represent the woman's point of view in his office. This special assistant, who is a woman, reaches into all phases of employment and training policy and programs to assure that women's concerns are effectively reflected.

The ES has developed an action program to strengthen and promote the employment of women through the ES offices. The plan outlines detailed steps to eliminate discrimination against women and reminds State agencies that job orders must not contain discriminatory specifications on sex and that referrals based on the sex of the applicant are prohibited except in the very few instances where sex is a bona fide occupational qualification.

The ES has developed a series of tools (including a self-appraisal system and monitoring activities) to assure that the State employment agencies will eliminate sex discrimination in providing employment service. Each State is required to submit a plan of service.

Guidance materials provided to the State employment agencies to give to women jobseekers include material of special interest to women, and deal with the status of women in the economy and job opportunities for women.

Local agencies have been encouraged and helped to develop local information for mothers seeking adequate child care. The ES has joined other community groups to support increased and improved child care facilities. The local offices also provide information on low cost or publicly assisted homemaker services to working women who have responsibilities to care for aging or ill relatives.

As part of its efforts to open jobs equally to men and women, the Dictionary of Occupational Titles, in which jobs are identified and defined, has been revised to delete sex or age connotations from job titles. Most job titles in the Dictionary did not have such identification, but about 3,500 titles were changed. The only exceptions were those complicated or arbitrary changes that would produce unfamiliar titles or confusion. The exempted job titles include (1) those for which sex, or age, is a bona fide occupational qualification, such as "Leading Lady" and "Leading Man;" (2) those titles fixed by legislation or international treaties, such as "Able Seaman;" and (3) those for which no acceptable, meaningful neuter title can be found. In this case, dual male/female titles have been suggested.

Employers with Federal Government contracts are required to list all job vacancies with the ES. In its work with these and other employers, the ES tries to communicate equal employment opportunity requirements with respect to women. By stressing the required qualifications, it can sometimes change employers' attitudes as to what they consider men's or women's jobs. The ES also will not accept job orders that specify the sex of the applicant.

Those with veterans' status, of whom over half a million are women, are provided special employment services. Women placed in jobs by State agencies receive a slightly higher starting wage than do men veterans, and the duration of their employment is about the same. The fact that many women have clerical skills facilitates their placement. There are, however, special problems with respect to referral and placement of women veterans. For example, there is sometimes failure to identify women veterans as such when they visit local employment offices. A number of actions are now being taken to correct these deficiencies, including cooperation with the Veterans' Administration to insure that women veterans receive all training and educational benefits to which they are entitled and to provide women with information on VA benefits.

In 1974 veteran status for purposes of employment services was expanded to include veterans' widows, and wives of some disabled veterans or of men missing in action.

Major Employment Training and Placement Programs

All programs that provide special education, training, and placement for disadvantaged labor market participants include women; and their administration either already emphasizes antidiscrimination efforts or is being changed to eliminate discrimination.

Comprehensive Employment and Training Act

A substantial portion of Federal employment and training funds are now used to implement the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA). This legislation eliminates provisions of earlier legislation allocating Federal funds for specific programs. Instead, it authorizes block grants to State and local governments for employment and training programs tailored to community needs.

The new training act specifically prohibits Federal funding of any programs that discriminate against women.

While the Employment and Training Administration has the responsibility for reviewing and approving grant applications for comprehensive employment and training plans, it must rely on the judgment of the local community officials who are prime sponsors in determining the needs of their communities and the content

and design of programs. The services provided under CETA for women and other client groups therefore depend largely upon the perceptions of those officials.

Regulations governing the program include various provisions to assure equal access to services for women as well as minority groups. (1) Prime sponsors and State advisory councils are required to the extent practical, to include members who are representatives of the client community, including women. There is a similar requirement to include women on Governors' State Manpower Service Councils. (2) Prime sponsors are required to publish their program summary in newspapers for comments from the general public and to respond to any comment. (3) Prime sponsors are required to establish priorities for assistance, taking into account the priorities identified by the Secretary and the significant groups represented among the economically disadvantaged, unemployed, and underemployed residing within their jurisdiction. (4) No person may, on the ground of race, creed, color, handicap * * * national origin, sex, or beliefs be excluded from participation in or be denied the benefits of any program or activity funded under the act.

The law also, in title VI, specifically prohibits any kind of discrimination under the act and spells out procedures for handling discriminatory practices.

Job Corps

One of the national programs continued by CETA is the Job Corps, and steps are underway to strengthen the commitment to women in the program. The Job Corps was established in 1965 to help jobless or low income youth become responsible employable citizens. Residential training is a unique feature. The Corps is based on two key ideas: (1) That many underprivileged young people need a change of environment away from family or community problems, or both, to make the most of their training. (2) That these youth need not only work training but a full program of educational, health, and recreational services.

The law requires immediate steps to assure that half of the enrollees are women. At present, 3 out of 10 enrollees are women but steps are underway to improve this ratio.

All Job Corps centers are being made coeducational. The centers' vocational programs have been expanded to include a number of jobs that are not normally considered women's occupations. Among these are several skilled trades, including construction.

Work Incentive Program

Another major employment and training program is the Work Incentive Program (WIN), designed to help people, primarily women receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), become productive workers. Welfare recipients who are able to work are required to register with the Employment Service for placement and training. Those under 18, those under 21 who are in school full time, mothers of preschool children, and the sick, disabled, or elderly do not need to register but may volunteer.

The WIN program offers jobfinding aid to AFDC recipients who are ready to work and services such as job training, counseling, medical aid, and child care to those who need such help to work.

AFDC recipients also have positive incentives for participating in WIN: an "income disregard" that makes working more profitable than welfare alone. The first $30 of earnings plus one-third of the remainder is not deducted from AFDC benefits, nor are work-related expenses. People in training or certain other WIN activities also receive an incentive payment of $30 a month besides their regular assistance checks.

A training package is being developed to help State employment service staff work out techniques for directing WIN registrants to skilled jobs not traditionally filled by women.

Income Security

A number of Government programs provide income to workers who become unemployed for economic reasons or because of job-related disabilities. In addition, the social security system provides income to disabled and older workers as well as to workers' survivors.

Unemployment Insurance

Unemployment insurance (UI) provides experienced members of the labor force with temporary partial replacement of wages lost because of economic unemployment. The wage replacement is paid to all who meet the statutory requirements without any relation to their individual need. The program is designed to assure that part of the costs of economic unemployment are shared by industry, instead of being borne entirely by unemployed individuals. By maintaining at least some of the purchasing power of the unemployed, the program serves to reduce the spread of unemployment. As workers, or wives of workers, women have a basic interest in maintaining the system. Eighty-five percent of all workers in the United States are covered by unemployment insurance.

UI is largely provided through a Federal-State program, established by the 1935 Social Security Act. The Federal-State program is financed by taxes paid by employers to the Federal Government and to the States. The Federal Government levies a tax on most employers and permits those employers to offset most of their Federal tax if they pay their required taxes under a State law which meets Federal requirements.

Subject to some Federal restrictions, each State legislature has great freedom to determine which employers are covered, the amount of tax paid by individual employers, and the conditions an individual must meet to receive benefits. The State has complete freedom to determine the size of regular benefits, but benefits are normally related to the past weekly wages of the claimant. When unemployment reaches defined levels the maximum duration of benefits is increased.

Basic benefit rates in all States are established for workers without differentiation between men and women or primary or secondary wage earners. Differences in actual benefits and eligibility for benefits between men and women are generally reflections of economic facts and differences in the way statutory restrictions and administrative rulings affect workers with different patterns of employment.

Individuals who leave a job voluntarily without good cause, who are discharged for misconduct connected with the job, or who, without good reason, refuse a suitable job, are disqualified for benefits.

The requirement that to be eligible for unemployment insurance benefits a worker must have been employed for a specified number of weeks in a recent base period means that the system does not protect those who are reentering the labor force. Despite the fact that taxes are paid on wages of part-time workers, those who work part time for personal reasons are generally not eligible for benefits because they are not available for full-time work.

Unemployment insurance eligibility is discussed further in appendix A, part 2.

Retirement and Disability Income

In 1935 Congress addressed the need for income of retired workers (and later their spouses) by enacting the *Social Security Act*. It is especially important for women workers who find it difficult to accumulate sufficient time with one employer to qualify for a private pension plan and who are less likely than men to work in establishments with such plans. For women who work entirely in their own homes, eligibility as dependents or survivors of insured workers is also critical.

Social security legislation has grown in complexity through the years and is addressed to a variety of social needs. Title II (the portion providing for what is popularly thought of as "Social Security") once provided minimal benefits for only certain types of employees when they reached the age of 65. Over the years title II has been amended numerous times to add benefits for disabled workers, survivors and dependents of insured workers, most self-employed persons, most State and local employees, household and farm employees, members of the armed services, and the clergy; to offer reduced benefits before age 65; to provide benefits at 72 for some uninsured individuals; to provide for automatic increases in benefits and contributions with changes in the Consumer Price Index and in average covered income; and to increase the contribution rate and base. In addition, when the Federal program of health insurance for the aged and disabled (usually referred to as "medicare") was established, the eligibility provisions for hospital insurance benefits were incorporated in title II. Recently, the Social Security Act was amended to establish a means-tested system of direct Federal "supplementary security" payments to aged, blind, and disabled persons.

There are special minimum retirement benefits for persons with low earnings. Disability benefits are payable to those with certain specified amounts of service. There is provision for survivors' benefits. A person who is eligible for benefits on the basis of his or her own hours is entitled to benefits based on this employment, or may receive benefits as a spouse or dependent survivor, whichever is higher.

Retirement age is 65, with retirement at age 62 permitted with a permanent reduction in benefits. Up to 40 quarters of work credit is needed for benefits.

Because women work fewer years than men and have more frequent breaks in employment, they are less likely to be eligible for benefits, and the size of their benefits is likely to be smaller than those of men. The situation in terms of eligibility for disability benefits is likely to be especially serious.

Details are provided in appendix A, part 2.

Supplementary Security Income

A Federal program of payments to low-income people 65 or over and to blind or disabled people replaced formerly Federal-State programs for these workers at the beginning of 1974. In contrast to the rest of the social security system, which is essentially limited to those who have paid social security taxes for a minimum period of time, supplementary security income is paid only to those whose earned and unearned income is below the income provided by the program. Supplementary payments by States are not counted in determining income eligibility. Disabled or blind beneficiaries who refuse vocational rehabilitation services without good cause lose eligibility.

Full monthly benefits as of July 1974 were $146 for a single person and $219 for a couple. These benefits are subject to the same consumer price escalation as social security benefits.

Medical Insurance Payments for Older Workers

The "medicare" program was added to the Social Security Act in 1965. Part A of the title provides hospital insurance benefits for those 65 and over; part B provides supplementary medical insurance benefits for persons under part A who elect coverage.

As of July 1, 1973, entitlement to hospital insurance benefits was expanded to people entitled for not less than 24 consecutive months to disability benefits under the social security or railroad retirement systems. Those insured under social security, their spouses, or their dependent children who require dialysis or kidney transplants because of chronic kidney failure are also eligible.

Hospital insurance benefits are financed by a percentage of wages collected with the social security contributions. The voluntary medical insurance program is financed by a monthly premium ($6.70 in July 1974) from enrollees, matched by funds appropriated by the Federal Government. Persons age 65 not eligible for social security can obtain coverage under both parts of the medical care program by paying a monthly premium ($36 in July 1974).

Private Pension Plans

Private employers are not required to establish private pension plans to supplement social security. The Federal Government does, however, set reporting standards for any private pension plans that employers do provide. These regulations were strengthened, and vesting and fiduciary requirements were added by legislation adopted in 1974. Under the new legislation, any employee of a company with a plan is eligible to participate if he or she is at least 25 years old and has worked at least 1 year for the employer. The 1974 legislation also created a guaranty corporation to protect vested benefits of workers whose plans are terminated with insufficient assets.

Workers' Compensation

All States require employers to provide benefits to workers who are injured on the job and also to workers with certain occupationally related illnesses. Workers' compensation benefits apply equally to men and women and are paid regardless of fault. Provisions of the workers' compensation law vary widely from State to State. The entire workers' compensation system, including the level of benefits provided, has been the subject of intensive review in recent years.

Temporary Disability Insurance

Except in six jurisdictions (five States and Puerto Rico) employers are not required by law to provide health insurance or disability benefits other than for occupationally related disabilities. In these jurisdictions, however, employers must pay taxes for temporary disability insurance.

Maternity Benefits and Other Financial Aids

There is no nationwide system of maternity leave or maternity allowances in the United States. However, special attention in recent years to income protection for women workers who become pregnant has significantly increased the number who are permitted to remain on the job as long as their physicians advise and who are entitled to normal disability benefits during absence for childbearing and to subsequent reinstatement. These changes have been brought about by laws designed to eliminate sex discrimination in employment and judicial decisions that arbitrary treatment of all pregnant workers violates their legal rights.

For years, many women workers have been covered under some type of employment-related insurance or benefit plan which guaranteed payment of at least part of hospital and physicians' expenses for childbirth. (Costs of such plans are either shared by employer and employee or borne by the employer.) In some instances, they have also been entitled to sick leave pay while absent for childbirth and recovery.

One of the six State laws requiring temporary disability insurance was changed recently to remove special restrictions on benefits for childbirth. Another was recently amended to permit payments to covered workers who are disabled because of abnormal or involuntary complications of pregnancy. Two States still limit the size or duration of benefits for pregnancy. In the other two, benefits are payable only for disability that occurs after a woman has worked in covered employment for at least 2 consecutive weeks following the termination of pregnancy.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission has ruled that disabilities related to pregnancy, miscarriage, childbirth, or recovery should be treated as temporary disabilities under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan. Employment policies or practices involving leave, accrual of seniority, reinstatement or other benefits must be applied to disability because of pregnancy or childbirth on the same terms as to other temporary disabilities. Moreover, termination of a temporarily disabled employee because of employment policy that provides insufficient leave violates the Civil Rights Act if it has a disparate effect on one sex and is not justified by business necessity. Several State agencies have adopted similar guidelines and policies. Several employers are being brought into court because of refusal to comply with the pregnancy guidelines; others have changed their policy to conform.

A number of actions are ending prohibitions on employment of women for specified periods immediately before and after childbirth, exclusion of women from employment because of pregnancy, and other employment practices that discriminate against pregnant women. Sex discrimination guidelines issued by the EEOC declare that the few State laws that prohibit employment of women for specified periods immediately before or after childbirth were superseded by Federal

law, as were employment policies or practices that exclude women from employment because of pregnancy.

In early 1974 the Supreme Court ruled that regulations of certain school boards requiring teachers to leave their jobs at the end of the fourth or fifth month of pregnancy were denial of "due process" under the Constitution of the United States.

The courts have generally upheld Federal and State agencies that have filed suit against companies still discriminating against pregnant employees. The Supreme Court agreed recently to review an appeals court decision specifically upholding the income maintenance requirements of EEOC sex discrimination guidelines.

Guidelines on maternity leave for Federal civilian employees were revised in October 1974 to eliminate provisions that appeared to make any distinction in treatment between pregnant employees and employees who experience temporary disabilities requiring extended absence from duty. In effect, this means that agencies cannot set arbitrary termination dates for pregnant employees, nor can they refuse to grant advance sick leave for pregnancy disability if such leave is granted for other temporary disabilities. The revised guidelines direct Federal agencies to handle requests of male employees for time off to care for minor children, or for their wives while incapacitated for maternity reasons, in a manner consistent with their policy for granting leave in similar situations.

Research in Progress

A variety of research projects are underway, aimed at identifying and remedying barriers to the employment and advancement of women. The Department of Labor is focusing its attention on further research in the following areas: identification of job requirements most likely to be barriers to employment and advancement of women; approaches to assure continuity of competence for women who must leave the labor force temporarily because of family responsibilities; techniques for increasing the number of women in nontraditional jobs; analysis of special employment problems of black, Spanish-surnamed, and other minority women; and more research on part-time employment and flexible work hour scheduling.

Some specific research projects have been described earlier. Among the others being financed by the Federal Government are:

- National longitudinal surveys of women in two age groups (the age to be entering the labor force for the first time and the age likely to be returning to the labor force). These are designed to relate personal characteristics such as education, training, health, family income, child care arrangements, and mobility to labor force behavior.
- A minority women's employment program, started in two cities and now expanded to five other cities. It was designed to develop methods of placing unemployed and underemployed college educated minority women in managerial, professional, and technical jobs. The program has come to be regarded by industry as a source for high caliber applicants.
- A test of the impact and effectiveness of a model youth program. The experiment involves black teenage girls with severe social and economic problems attending sessions directed by peers of similar social and economic background who serve as role models.
- A project to modify credential and qualification requirements for paraprofessional workers in occupations such as child development, occupational therapy, and teaching.
- An assessment of the impact of training programs on minorities and women.
- An assessment of the effect of flexible work hours on welfare dependency.
- A study of the influence of health problems on the employment of welfare recipients.

Administrative Arrangements

The role of various parts of the Department of Labor and of State agencies in administering the variety of government programs with impacts on women is described in the preceding sections of this report and in chapter 3. The Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor is the continuing mechanism focusing on the special concerns of women workers. Established by Congress in 1920 as part of the United States Department of Labor, it is the single agency in the Federal Government with the legislative directive to promote the welfare of working women. Its mandate is "to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment."

The Bureau is headed by a Director, who is also the Special Counselor to the Secretary of Labor for Women's Programs. It has a staff of some 75 to 80 in its national and 10 regional offices throughout the country.

The work of the Bureau is centered around three basic goals:

- To improve the employability of women,
- To increase employment opportunities for women, and
- To reduce substantially discrimination in employment based on sex.

In carrying out its responsibilities, the Women's Bureau serves as leader, advocate, adviser, and stimu-

lator. It also serves as the central clearinghouse for economic and legal information about women. It provides background information and up-to-date statistics on current trends and developments in women's employment, legal rights, educational attainment, and other areas, to various Federal, State, and local public agencies and private organizations and groups in the United States and around the world.

Current programs of the Bureau include informing women of their legal rights and providing advisory services to employers engaged in developing affirmative action programs to eliminate sex discrimination in the hiring, training, and promotion of women. The Bureau promotes the entrance of women into fields that traditionally have not been open to them, including apprenticeable jobs. It is deeply concerned with elevating the status of women who are now in low-skilled, low-wage occupations such as private household work. Through conferences, publications, and advisory services, the Bureau promotes the creation of more effective rehabilitation programs for women offenders, expanded day care services for children of working mothers, and continuing education programs. It is expanding channels of communication with young women and those of minority groups in order to address their special needs. In addition, it works closely with trade union women's groups, women's organizations, and various other public and private agencies or organizations.

Although the Bureau does not enforce any laws, it works closely with enforcement agencies to assist in formulating regulations or guidelines and to help educate workers, employers, and the public about laws prohibiting sex discrimination. And while it does not provide financial assistance to groups or individuals, the Bureau has helped obtain from other agencies funding of projects for training or research purposes.

Since 1972 the Bureau has had a leading role in the coordination of Department of Labor activities affecting women. By direction of the Secretary of Labor, all Department activities that relate to the participation of women in the economic and social development of the Nation must be coordinated with activities of the Bureau. This means the Bureau must be involved in policymaking matters that pertain to women's interests and in clearing materials that may have an impact on Bureau activities. The Intradepartmental Coordinating Committee for Women, chaired by the Women's Bureau Director and composed of Department staff at the policymaking level, was subsequently set up to insure effective coordination and full utilization of Department resources on behalf of women.

The technical expertise of the Women's Bureau may be utilized by Congress in considering proposed legislation. The Director or other staff members may testify at hearings, or publications and special reports may by submitted for the record, and the Bureau may prepare recommendations on proposed legislation.

In the administrative area, the recommendations of the Women's Bureau and the informal advice of the Director are sought by top government officials on a host of issues affecting women. Women's Bureau staff also participate in numerous policymaking task forces and inter-Federal agency committees.

There are other Federal agencies, and ad hoc groups which do not enforce laws, concerned with the interests of women in the labor force. Bureau employees serve as the staff of one of these, the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women. Members of the Council, established by Executive order in 1963, are appointed by the President. The Council's primary functions are to:

- Serve as a primary means for suggesting and stimulating action with private institutions, organizations, and individuals working for improvement of conditions of special concern to women,
- Review and evaluate progress of organizations in furthering the full participation of women in American life, and
- Consider the effect of new developments on methods of advancing the status of women and recommend appropriate action.

The Council has made recommendations to the President, to agencies of the Federal Government, to State legislatures, to State and city commissions on the status of women, and to voluntary organizations. The Council's recommendations are published without review by any part of the Federal Government.

Its recommendations and supporting papers and its annual reports are distributed to women's organizations, State commissions on the status of women, the media, and individuals. Its publications are also distributed at many conferences on topics related to the status of women.

The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights makes continuing studies and recommendations covering violations of civil rights because of sex, race, color, religion or national origin. In addition, special advisory committees on women have been established within the past few years in at least two Federal agencies, the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The Federal Women's Program (FWP) was established in 1967 within the Civil Service Commission to advance the status of women in the Federal service. Each Federal agency is required to have a Federal women's program coordinator or chairperson of an FWP committee to act as the agency's contact, source of information, and adviser to the agency head on matters involving the employment of women.

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There is also an Office for Women's Programs within the White House.

State labor departments, State human relations commissions, and an increasing number of local labor departments and commissions are also concerned with improved standards for women workers. Federal and State agencies have traditionally worked closely and tried not to duplicate efforts.

Nongovernmental Measures

Employers

In the United States, government regulation of pay and benefits is essentially limited to establishment of statutory minimum wage rates, overtime premium requirements, the requirement of equal pay and equal employment opportunity, and some government regulation of pensions, and to effective enforcement of these policies. Beyond this it is the personnel practices of private employers and labor-management agreements that determine the actual pay and benefits that both men and women receive. These practices do not distinguish between men and women in the same job. To the extent that women move in and out of the labor force more frequently and change jobs, however, their actual pay and benefits are affected by the fact that workers with greater seniority often receive higher pay or more liberal benefits. Some employers increase pay within a job with length of service, and longer experience increases opportunities for promotion to higher paying jobs. In addition, the jobs for which employers hire women and their opportunities for promotion have been affected by tradition.

Recently Federal and State equal pay and equal employment policies as embodied in legislation and related Executive orders have resulted in substantial changes in employer practice. A number of major employers have accepted consent decrees to increase opportunities for training and advancement of women and to assure equal pay. There has also been widespread change in employer awareness of the need to provide equal treatment and opportunities. For example, many employers in recent years have liberalized their policies on childbirth absence. Thus, one survey report published in early 1974 shows that over half the responding firms had changed their maternity leave policies to bring them into conformance with the EEOC guidelines, and almost a fourth anticipated making further changes. One particularly striking change from findings of a similar survey taken shortly after issuance of the pregnancy guidelines was that the proportion of employers who set a departure date for pregnant workers had dropped by half—from 35 percent to only 18 percent.

Many employers provide retirement pensions in addition to social security. Such plans cover slightly more than 1 out of 3 women working full time in private employment. The lower coverage of women than of men by private pension plans is due in part to their heavier concentration in the younger age groups and differences in job tenure. (Because of length of service requirements, workers with relatively long tenure on their current jobs are more likely to be covered by pension plans than those with shorter tenure. More women than men are concentrated in the youngest age group, where job turnover is high.) Much of the gap, however, is explained by concentration of women in industries such as trade and services, where private pensions are less common than in industries where men predominate.

Even for workers of equal job tenure, women are somewhat less likely to have vested rights to pensions (the right to receive a pension even though they change employers). Twenty-six percent of the women reported vested rights to pensions, compared with 34 percent of the men. Vesting requirements will be liberalized as a result of recently enacted pension legislation.

Labor Unions

Although, as pointed out earlier, women represent a smaller proportion of union members than they do of the labor force as a whole, there are still over 4.5 million women union members. At least half the members of several major unions are women. These include the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, the Communications Workers of America, the International Ladies' Garment Workers, the Retail Clerks International Union, and the American Federation of Teachers. In addition, among associations, the American Nurses' Association is made up largely of women. Clearly the policies of these organizations, as well as of unions in which women are relatively less numerous, are of importance in protecting the welfare and conditions of employment of women. Despite their numbers, few women hold responsible elective and appointive positions within the labor movement. Of the 4,800 positions in governing boards of unions and associations, fewer than 7 percent were occupied by women in 1972. Even in several organizations with a large proportion of women members, few served on the national governing body.

During the last 3 or 4 years, women have taken an increasing interest in the status of women in their own unions and the extent to which unions are serving the interests of their women members. Union conferences, held with increasing frequency on the needs and problems of women members, were a major factor in the convening in March 1974 of 3,200 women delegates representing over 58 labor unions. These delegates established the National Coalition of Labor Union Women (CLUW) and set four major goals for the new organization: (1) to encourage the 30 million nonunion

working women to join unions; (2) to increase women's participation within unions; (3) to seek affirmative action on the part of unions against employers' discriminatory practices; and (4) to press for legislation which would further women's interests, such as child care assistance and the passage of the Equal Rights Amendment. Many local CLUW groups have been formed throughout the country.

Voluntary Organizations

Employment counseling, information, and assistance have been provided to women for many years by a variety of voluntary civic, religious, and social organizations and by professional and business organizations. Examples are the courses, lectures, and other services provided to women workers and potential workers by the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA), the Women's Trade Union League, and summer schools for women workers set up primarily on college campuses; the educational and vocational guidance publications of B'nai B'rith Women, the Jewish women's service organization; the vocational and leadership training provided by such women's service organizations as Altrusa International, Pilot Club International, Soroptimist International Association, Zonta International; and the broad-scale support for working women by groups such as the National Council of Negro Women, the National Council of Jewish Women, the National Council of Catholic Women, and Church Women United.

These activities have been greatly augmented in both scope and amount in recent years by new organizations with a primary goal of improving the status of women. Although the "women's movement" can be said to be at least as old as the suffragist movement to obtain voting rights for women in the early decades of this century, the movement has greatly accelerated in the last 10 or 15 years.

One of the most important developments of the 1960's was the establishment of Commissions on the Status of Women and the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women as a result of recommendations made in the 1963 report of the President's Commission on the Status of Women.

Commissions on the Status of Women

Members of State and local commissions include both private citizens and members of State legislatures or local councils. As more of the commissions obtain permanent status through State legislation, budgets have increasingly been provided to permit their more effective operation. Commissions serve as bridges between the government and the community, bringing to officialdom the needs and views of women.

At the end of 1974, commissions which were created either by action of State Governors or local officials, or by State legislation or local ordinances, were active in all but two States and in 43 municipalities or counties. Commissions have been actively combating sex discrimination in economic, political, and legal areas. They have conducted investigations, held hearings, issued reports and lobbied for legislation on a wide variety of issues affecting the status of women.

In 1970, following the Women's Bureau's 50th Anniversary Conference, the State commissions formed the Interstate Association of Commissions on the Status of Women, now known as the National Association of Commissions for Women (NACW). The purpose of the Association is to foster closer relationships and fuller exchange of ideas among members and to further equal legal, social, political, economic, and education opportunity and advancement of all men and women.

Another development has been the recent movement toward coalitions of commissions serving a specific geographic area, either a coalition of local commissions serving a large metropolitan area or a coalition of State and local commissions within a State.

Women's Organizations

During the period that saw the growth of State commissions on the status of women, a variety of new types of women's organizations were growing up throughout the Nation as part of the "women's movement." These organizations ranged from small unstructured groups of women meeting together for "consciousness-raising" to national organizations with State and local branches such as the National Organization for Women (NOW) established in 1966, and the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), established in 1968.

The services of these groups in the employment area ranged from encouragement of women by local feminist groups to raise their career goals, to wide scale national campaigns to remove specific barriers, such as sex stereotyping in schools and in jobs, which prevent women from utilizing their full talents and skills in the work force. An important part of the activities of some of the large women's organizations has been the effort to compel strict enforcement of laws and orders prohibiting sex discrimination in employment, and financial and legal support to women involved in court tests of these laws.

Business and Professional Women's Groups

Voluntary associations of employed business and professional women have for many years provided special services to their own members in the form of information and education, and in some cases, training, placement, and referral services. Many of these organizations of professional women, such as the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, were established prior to or just after

World War I. Some were in active operation before 1900—included are the American Association of University Women, established in 1882; the American Nurses Association, organized under another name in 1896; and the National Association of Women Lawyers, founded in 1899. While continuing their traditional roles, these long established organizations have in recent years broadened their mission and now seek to upgrade the status of women in their professions.

A large number of professional organizations with both men and women members have established special committees or caucuses on the status of women. Many of these have established special talent banks for women. In addition, they have prepared special reports on the status of women in their respective professions and have brought to public attention the barriers to the advancement of women existing within the profession. This has facilitated efforts to expand women's opportunities for employment and for advancement in these professions.

There has also been an accelerated growth among minority women's organizations in response to the increased awareness of double discrimination, that of race or ethnic group and of sex, faced by women of minority groups.

Another type of voluntary organization of working women are the associations of trade union women. These were discussed in the previous section of this chapter.

Continuing Education Centers

Mature women seeking to enter or reenter the labor force after a period devoted to homemaking often find that the education programs available in the regular school system are not adequate to meet their needs for additional education or refresher training. These women often need current information on the world of work and counseling on career opportunities. They may also need part-time educational schedules, financial support, day care services, more review and refresher training courses, and teaching methods and courses designed for adults.

The President's Commission on the Status of Women highlighted the value of continuing education for mature women in its 1963 report and recommended a comprehensive program of continuing education geared to the individual woman's needs. As a result, continuing education programs and centers with some or all of the special services needed by mature women were organized by a number of colleges and universities, some secondary school systems, and related organizations. In early 1971 some 450 special continuing education programs for women were known to be in operation.[1]

Most of these programs were oriented toward the professional woman seeking to complete or augment her college or university training. Since 1971 the number of such centers located in colleges and universities has continued to increase as the number of mature women enrolled in educational institutions increased. In October 1972, 748,000 women 35 years of age and over were enrolled in school working for a diploma, a degree, or training for an occupation.[2] Of these women, 420,000 were in college or university degree-oriented programs, 55,000 in elementary or secondary schools, and 273,000 in trade or vocational schools.

Information and Referral Centers

It became increasingly evident recently that certain groups were not receiving sufficient information to enable them to function effectively. In many local communities, information centers, designed to acquaint local citizens of both sexes with the governmental and nongovernmental services available in the community, uncovered a special demand for better systems of providing assistance to women. The same needs emerged from conferences of women's groups.

In addition to information about health and welfare services which was being provided, it was found that women were seeking employment information and assistance. They need help in ascertaining their employment rights and in knowing where and how to obtain redress against discriminatory policies and practices. They also need counseling concerning employment opportunities, career planning, child care services, and training programs, and access to job referral and placement services.

To meet these needs, many special information and referral centers have been established in the last decade for women, including a number designed particularly to service employment and job-related needs. They were established by local communities, by women's organizations, by minority groups, and by special groups of women volunteers.

In general, these local information and referral groups are designed for women who are not easily reached by traditional organizations and institutions. These may be members of racial or ethnic groups not in the mainstream of community information channels, or poorly educated, low-income women who do not belong to business or professional organizations or to trade unions. They may be young women whose schooling has been inadequate to prepare them for the jobs that are available in or near their homes, or they may be mature women whose years of homemaking have left them with inadequate knowledge about the world of work, confidence in their own abilities, and skills necessary for employment.

[1] U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau: "Continuing Education Programs and Services for Women," Pamphlet 10 (revised), 1971.

[2] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Going Back to School at 35," *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1973.

How To Make Better Use of Their Abilities

In the United States rapid changes have taken place during the last 25 years in the work patterns of women, as discussed in chapter 1. Following the rapid rise in labor force participation among mature women during the 1950's and early 60's, the last decade has seen accelerated labor force participation among young women, including those with children. The increases in participation among women during the childbearing and childrearing years seem to indicate that a growing proportion of the young women of today plan more or less continuous work force participation during their lives.

The prospect of this extended work force participation by women has significant implications for educators, for labor policy planners, and for women. Women workers have faced many obstacles in the past in trying to achieve full utilization of their skills and aptitudes. These difficulties are of much more concern for those who expect to work a substantial portion of their adult lives. Major problems include the concentration of women in a narrow range of occupational fields, the slower rate of progression of women than men within an occupational field, and the strong tendency of educators and employers to view women workers or potential workers as a homogeneous group with little realization of the differences existing among women in aspirations, aptitudes, and worklife patterns.

In the United States enforcement and implementation of present laws prohibiting sex discrimination in education and employment is contributing significantly to the solution of all of these problems. For example, as discussed in chapter 2, title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the sex discrimination guidelines specifically prohibit discrimination in all aspects of employment, including classification into men's jobs and women's jobs, promotion, and training. In addition, title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 provides the legal base for the improvement of the position of women in respect to entrance into specific college, university, and graduate school curricula, and to an equal opportunity to qualify for Federal financial aid. As a result of this and the existence of enforcement agencies to implement the laws, flagrant violations are becoming increasingly rare. For example, quotas restricting entrance of women into professional schools, such as law and medicine, which were fairly commonplace 10 or 20 years ago, are seldom found today.

Unconscious or unintentional discrimination, based on outmoded concepts of women's abilities and women's labor force attachment, is much more difficult to correct. In this area, affirmative action programs, as required by the order for Federal contractors, and the conscious efforts of women workers and women's organizations are making important contributions to an amelioration of this situation.

Significantly, a research survey in December 1973 of 113 large and small companies and agencies in the business, industry, service, and government sectors found that formal affirmative action programs (for minorities and women) were in effect in 79 percent of the companies surveyed.[1] Furthermore, 62 percent of the respondents reported that changes had been made in selection criteria to implement equal employment opportunity programs. Women are recruited for high level positions with special programs in 45 percent of the companies, while 21 percent have special training programs to prepare women employees for upgrading.

Career Counseling Services Provided to Girls and Women

Although changes in the occupational distribution of women workers are occurring, vocational sex stereotyping is still a problem. Moreover, it is a problem which necessitates not only a modification of traditional education and employment policies and practices but a reorientation of the counseling provided women and girls in order to permit them to make more realistic choices in regard to career selection and education.

Career counseling is provided primarily by the school system at the secondary school level either by guidance counselors or by subject teachers. However, by the time a young woman reaches this educational level, she has already been exposed to a set of attitudes concerning the participation of men and women in the world of work and the occupational and career choices open to them.

Efforts are now being made in this country to create greater awareness of changing conditions affecting the role of women in the work force. Realization of the

[1] American Society for Personnel Administration and Bureau of National Affairs: Bulletin to Management No. 1244, "Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action Programs," ASPA/BNA Survey No. 20, Dec. 13, 1973.

lengthening worklife attachment of today's women, for example, is an important factor affecting the decisions of many young women to prepare for careers outside the home rather than short-term jobs—careers which may involve a considerable investment of time in job training (such as in the skilled crafts) or in higher education. Similarly, realization of the broad range of occupations now being successfully performed by women can go far to counteract obsolete ideas concerning so-called "men's jobs" and "women's jobs."

Much remains to be done, however, to overcome stereotyped concepts of masculine and feminine roles traditionally held by parents, educators, and society. Career counseling and career counseling literature still reflect these attitudes to a considerable extent. As a result, women continue to be concentrated in traditionally female occupations which are usually less remunerative than so-called "male occupations."

Despite recent legislation calling for equal opportunity in educational programs, young women are frequently provided information about a narrower range of occupations than are young men and are offered a narrower range of curriculum choices. In fact, a recent vocational education study, financed by the U.S. Office of Education, revealed that in the occupational areas in which girls are concentrated there were only 33 course options for wage earning occupations in contrast to the 95 course options in occupational areas in which boys are concentrated.

A significant step to correct such situations was made with the passage of the Women's Educational Equity Act of 1974 which contains provisions for training of school personnel, with special emphasis on guidance and counseling. Part of the thrust is the revision of career tests to remove sex stereotyping; also emphasized is the expansion of programs for girls and women in career and vocational education and in educational administration.

In addition to governmental measures, many women's groups are active in the drive to free school textbooks and juvenile literature of all stereotyping references. In addition, the career education program of the U.S. Office of Education aims to improve knowledge of the world of work and career possibilities among students from kindergarten through high school and to provide students with increasing exposure to actual job situations. The program also encompasses the goal of reducing occupational sex stereotyping either by sex or race.

The recent revision of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (see chap. 2) to omit from job titles the implication that the job is limited to men or women should be of further assistance in encouraging women to enter occupations they had not previously considered.

Formal Counseling

High schools, depending upon their enrollment, are staffed with one or more guidance counselors. According to the U.S. Office of Education, there were 655 secondary school students for every guidance counselor in the school year 1971–72. The ideal ratio is approximately one counselor for every 300 students. Moreover, various other kinds of counseling that must be provided students compete with the time allotted for career planning.

The problem of adequate counseling for women extends also into colleges and universities. Until recent years it was generally assumed that women would pursue professional careers in teaching, nursing, social work, or library work. The degrees women earned, as shown in tables 60, 60a, and 60b for 1970–71, reflect these traditional views. Most colleges provide a combined counseling and placement service, but not necessarily directed at the needs of women. However, many institutions now offer special programs designed to create a new awareness of women's special contributions and to broaden their professional outlook. Significant changes have already been noted in the rising proportion of women among law school and medical school students.

Counseling of Women Workers

A substantial share of the job counseling services provided after school learning age (primarily by the United States Employment Service) goes to women. Counseling services are available for women in each of the more than 2,200 local public employment offices. Local employment service counselors have access to a wide variety of labor market and occupational information which is used in relating vocational planning to problems occasioned by career patterns and individual characteristics of the women and other clients they are assisting. Much of this information comes from the U.S. Department of Labor. In fiscal year 1974, counseling services were provided to almost a million people, of whom 47 percent were women. A quarter of a million people were placed in jobs following counseling, and, of these, 44 percent were women. Employment counselors observe the Federal legislative mandates to eliminate discrimination in employment on the basis of sex.

Employment and training programs developed for special groups, such as women receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children and the Job Corps, described in chapter 2, include job counseling services as well as vocational training. Experimental programs to improve assistance to women in finding employment, also described in chapter 2, include improved career counseling services.

Young women need expanded counseling services to help them plan long-term goals and combinations of

roles in the complex society in which they will live. In view of the fact that 9 out of 10 girls will work at some time during their lives, and the more education a woman has the more likely she is to work, efforts are being made to assure that girls are counseled for total life preparation. Such preparation for most girls should include information concerning the possibility of: (1) employment outside the home along with homemaking responsibilities, and (2) a split career pattern—a few years of work before childbearing, a period out of the labor force, then a return to work after the children are in school or somewhat independent.

With a worklife expectancy of about 25 years for the married woman who returns to the labor force after childrearing, mature women entering or reentering the labor force also need supportive counseling and information on sources of continuing education, special training programs, counseling and employment services, and financial assistance.

Education and Vocational Training

Education

In the United States children usually start to school at the age of 6 and complete 12 years of elementary and secondary school education by the age of 18. In 1973, 78 percent of all women 18 years of age in the population and 73 percent of all men of that age were high school graduates. A decade earlier the corresponding figures were 70 percent for women and 66 percent for men.

Nearly all girls of elementary school age are enrolled in school—99 percent in October 1973 of those 7 to 13 years of age and 97 percent of those 14 and 15 years of age. As young women pass the compulsory school attendance age of 16 (in many States), the proportion in school drops; 87 percent of those 16 and 17 years old were enrolled in 1973. Enrollment rates for boys of these ages are very similar.

With graduation from high school, the proportion of young women attending school is substantially less—38 percent of those 18 and 19 and 26 percent of those 20 and 21. A somewhat larger proportion of boys beyond high school age are attending school—48 percent of those 18 and 19 and 34 percent of those 20 and 21.

The overall educational attainment of women and men 25 years of age and over is about the same—12.3 and 12.4 median years of school completed, respectively, in March 1974. However, women are less likely than men to have had college training. In March 1974, 21.5 percent of all women 25 years and over had had 1 or more years of college and 10.1 percent were college graduates, while 29.3 percent of the men had had 1 or more years of college and 16.9 percent were college graduates.

Public high schools in the United States offer courses in three different types of curricula; academic or college preparatory, vocational and technical, or general education. Girls are somewhat less likely than boys to take a college preparatory curriculum and more likely to take a vocational and technical curriculum. A survey of high school seniors in the spring of 1972 showed their high school program as follows.[3]

Type of program	Percent distribution	
	Women	Men
General	34	3[illegible]
Academic	38	4[illegible]
Vocational	28	20

Vocational Training

Traditionally, U.S. schools have provided different vocational programs for boys and girls. Those for girls have been heavily influenced by the assumption that women will be housewives rather than work outside the home. Even among the courses that are directed toward employment outside the home, there has been great emphasis on careers that are extensions of homemaking or that have traditionally been dominated by women. Growth is now taking place in training of women in jobs traditionally filled by men but the proportion of women in such training courses is still small.

Information for 6.4 million women enrolled in federally assisted vocational courses in the year ending in June 1972 (which accounts for most of the students receiving formal vocational education) showed that 45 percent were enrolled in consumer and homemaking classes designed primarily to improve the quality of home and working life. Another 4 percent were enrolled in home economics courses designed to provide employment outside the home (for example, in child care and guidance, home and institutional management). By far the largest number of girls or women enrolled in courses designed to provide employment outside the home were in secretarial, stenographic, or other office training—traditionally jobs in which women have predominated. About 1.8 million girls and women, or almost 1 out of 3 girls or women taking some vocational subject, were enrolled in office training courses.

Ranking next in importance were the health occupations, including nursing or nurses' assistant programs, medical laboratory assistant, dental assistant, or dental hygienist. These programs were generally conducted in cooperation with hospitals or other health agencies. Occupational ladders are also being established in some of the health occupations in which women are employed in large numbers. Previously, opportunities for advancement were limited in these health jobs. Almost as many women were employed in a variety of trade and industrial occupations; many of these were in occupations,

[3] U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics: "National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972."

such as cosmetology, textile production, and fabrication, that long employed substantial numbers of women.

There has been a rapid growth in recent years in enrollment of women in courses in which they were very rarely trained in the past—for example, air conditioning, auto body and fender repair, auto mechanic, carpentry, metalworking, law enforcement, and woodworking. The number of women in these courses still remains small compared with the number of men.

Although relatively few jobs in the United States are filled by means of formal apprenticeship programs, they include some of the most skilled and well paid blue-collar jobs, especially in the construction trades. However, many workers even in these trades still learn their trade without going through formal apprenticeship.

Apprenticeship training programs offer substantial advantages to either men or women workers who are starting their careers by giving them an opportunity to earn money at the same time as they are receiving on-the-job training and related classroom instruction. All aspects of their chosen trade are covered during the course of the 2- to 4-year training period so that upon completion the apprentice becomes a skilled craft worker or journeyman. Moreover, during the training period the rate of pay is increased at regular intervals until it reaches 100 percent of the journeyman pay on completion.

The scarcity of women in apprenticeship programs has resulted in part from the fact that many apprenticeships are in construction trades, which have been traditionally male jobs. In addition, women have been denied these opportunities because of the notion held by employers, unions, and apprenticeship councils that women are only temporary work force participants whose expected years of employment will not justify a long on-the-job training period.

Since technological and social changes have altered the sex stereotyping of jobs and since the work force participation of women has become noticeably longer and more continuous, the Employment and Training Administration has initiated efforts to get a larger number of women into apprenticeable trades.

Outreach programs designed to increase participation of women and minorities in apprenticeship appear to be the main approaches required to change attitudes and obtain results. Thus, in addition to the Employment and Training Administration's outreach program for women in six cities, language is being incorporated into the scope of the work of the other apprenticeship outreach program contracts that specifies that women shall receive equal consideration for services provided by the contracts. This will affect outreach programs currently operating in more than 100 cities.

In addition, the Employment and Training Administration's order that authorizes establishment of Apprenticeship Information Centers is being revised to insure that such Centers are responsive to the needs of women. Also, the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training's program which provides speakers and literature to high schools is giving increased attention to the opportunities offered to girls through apprenticeship.

Vocational training is also provided by employers but the only data available on such training are for programs that are federally financed or assisted (these are discussed in chapter 2).

How To Combine Dual Roles in Work and Family Life

Child Care Arrangements

Early in 1974, 13.6 million working women—38 percent of all women in the labor force—were mothers of children under 18. Their 27 million children account for almost half of all children in the United States. Of these working mothers, 5.1 million had children under 6. These preschool children total 6.1 million. From 1970 to 1974, while the number of children under 18 in the population declined by 2.1 million, there was an increase of 1.2 million children whose mothers were employed. Providing adequate care for these children while their mothers are employed is a task of major proportions, without allowing for the additional number of workers described later who might seek employment if they could make satisfactory arrangements for handling their home responsibilities.

Detailed current information is not available on the arrangements that working mothers now make for care of their children, but enough information is available to provide an accurate description of the relative importance of the major types of care provided. It is clear that the largest number of preschool children of working mothers are cared for within the home by the father, other relatives, or a nonrelative "babysitter." Next most common is care of such children in someone else's home, either the home of a relative or a nonrelative. Care in a group care center is relatively rare.

Even though the most common arrangement is care in the child's own home, there has been a rapid shift in the past decade away from this kind of arrangement toward licensed day care centers or licensed family homes. In the past 12 or 15 years the number of spaces in licensed centers or family homes has increased to a million, from less than 200,000. Half of the licensed day care slots are in private homes or proprietary centers (either one-center enterprises or part of a franchise or chain operation). The other half are in nonprofit centers under public, private, or voluntary auspices.

A majority of school-age children are cared for by their mothers, many of whom work only during school hours. Substantial numbers, especially the older ones, look after themselves.

There is continued pressure for more governmental funds to finance day care and for employers to provide

funds for care of their employees' children, especially in view of the fact that good child care is expensive and because lack of it is a serious barrier to employment of women. There has been a dramatic increase in Federal funds for child care in recent years, in large part because of efforts to put mothers now receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children into employment outside the home. An October 1974 child care study by the Committee on Finance of the U.S. Senate estimated that the Federal Government spends nearly $1.2 billion a year for child care, much of it for care of children of women who are heads of low-income families. In addition, many working parents (whether or not they are family heads) can take deductions for child care in computing their income tax.

Major items in the $1.2 billion expended by the Federal Government for child care were the more than $400 million for care of children of participants in the Work Incentive program and about $400 million for the Headstart program. Except for Headstart payments, the kinds of care provided were for paid helpers in the children's own home, licensed day care homes, and day care centers. The Headstart program is a comprehensive preschool program including a wide range of developmental activities, education, medical, dental, nutritional, social, and other services. The balance of the money supports a variety of other child care programs and such relatively small programs as day care services for handicapped children and research and demonstration projects.

The most comprehensive study of child care arrangements was made in 1965 by the Department of Labor and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. At that time, almost half of the preschool children of working mothers were cared for in their homes, not quite a third in someone else's home, and only about 5 percent in group care centers. A study made only 2 or 3 years later suggested that care in the working mother's home was decreasing and care in another home was increasing.

Additional details are provided in appendix A, table 61.

In recognition of the need for good child care arrangements and of their expense, the program of the Women's Bureau virtually since its establishment in 1920 has included promotion of expanded and innovative child care services. Among other things, the Bureau has published basic overall day care facts and factual data on child care provided by employers. The Bureau continues to be the force behind the day care center available to children of Department of Labor staff, and it has assisted other government agencies working to establish similar centers. Several agencies now sponsor centers; others would do so if they could arrange financial support. The Bureau has also sponsored or participated in many conferences designed to encourage more industry-sponsored day care. The goal has not been achieved, nor is it likely that it will be in the foreseeable future. There does, however, continue to be improvement.

Help Provided to Women Workers by Other Family Members

Nearly 2 out of 3 women in the United States who work outside their home also work at home caring either for husbands or children, or both. In addition, substantial numbers of married and single women have responsibility for parents, grandparents, or other relatives. Beyond their household activities or care of children most working wives or family heads also have some financial responsibility for their families.

The difficulties these women face in working out a balance between their job commitments and their work in the home vary considerably according to size and composition of the family and whether or not there is a husband in the home to share both financial and work responsibilities. Few women have full-time household help, and members of the family must assist with the functions required to run the home.

The family, in most cases, consists of husband, wife, and children. Household responsibilities, therefore, primarily fall on the couple and are not shared by grandparents, in-laws, aunts, or other relatives. Among all working wife households in March 1974, only 1 out of 8 included an adult woman other than the wife.

Employed wives spend about 2 hours less a day on household activities than do wives who do not work outside the home. Wives employed 30 hours or more a week averaged 5 hours daily in household work, or 3 hours less than the nonemployed wife.

A large share of the difference is caused by a substitution of services of industry for work otherwise done in the home. Examples are the purchase of laundry service or convenience foods. In some cases the employed housewife may use her time more efficiently and in some cases the wife may simply not perform some household chores or may perform them less frequently.

The use of laborsaving devices and purchased services may lighten the physical workload of the housewife but does not always shorten her total workweek to an equal extent. Time spent on the purchase of food and clothing may be increased as more items are purchased. Household appliances require time for service and maintenance.

The employed housewife's time devoted to daily household activities, according to a recent study of 1,378 households,[3] varies from a low of 3½ hours a day, when she is young and has no children, to 7 or more hours a day if she has 2 or more children and the

[3] U.S. Department of Agriculture: "Time and its Dollar Value in Household Work," Family Economics Review, Fall 1973.

youngest is a baby (table 62). This amounts to 24½ to 49 or more hours a week.

Time spent on household work by husbands averaged 1.5 hours a day. The data did not show a relationship between the husband's time spent on household duties and the number of hours the wife worked outside the home. However, the longer the husband's work hours the less he helped at home. Husbands who worked 50 or more hours a week at their jobs contributed 1.3 hours daily in the home, as compared with 2.1 hours daily contributed by husbands who had a workweek of less than 40 hours. In the United States, men working full time generally work longer workweeks than women working full time—44.1 and 40.2 hours a week, respectively, in 1974. Thus, the difference between men and women in total hours worked at home and on the job is not as great as the household work data suggest. A more recent small-scale study found that husbands whose wives were employed in professional work contributed a larger share of their time to household tasks.[4]

The employment of the mother apparently had little effect on the amount of time children helped with household activities. Those age 12 to 17 averaged about an hour a day, and children 6 to 11 averaged half an hour daily helping in the home.

The types of household activities performed by various family members tend to follow fairly typical patterns. Most of the inside work, such as laundry, cleaning, and food preparation, is done by the wife. Husbands do most of the yard work and home maintenance, help with the marketing, and help in some activities with the children, particularly when they are very small. Current articles about younger married couples suggest that young husbands, particularly among the college educated, tend to be less rigid about traditional sex roles in performing household activities.

A recent opinion poll surveyed the attitudes of both men and women on the type of marriage they would consider most satisfying and interesting.[5] A majority of both women and men 40 years of age and over preferred the traditional marriage with the husband assuming the responsibility for providing for the family and the wife running the house and taking care of the children. But among young women and men 18 to 39 years old a majority preferred a marriage where husband and wife share responsibilities more—both work, both share homemaking and child responsibilities.

[4] Lynda Lytle Holmstrom, *Intertwining Career Patterns of Husbands and Wives in Certain Professions*, Brandeis University, 1970. Unpublished.

[5] The Virginia Slims American Women's Opinion Poll, Volume III, conducted by the Roper Organization, Inc., 1974.

The decline in family size now taking place will probably lead to a reduction in the number of hours needed for household activities. Thus, even without a change in the amount of help offered by other family members, the working wife's burden may be somewhat alleviated.

The development of flexible work schedules as well as any future reductions in workweeks may lead to more sharing of household activities by husbands. The fact that wives bring in a second income may also reduce the necessity of husbands working at a part-time second job after a full day's work.

Barriers to Seeking Work by Women Not in the Labor Force

Most American women who are not in the work force have no immediate intentions of seeking a job. Of the 42.8 million women who were not in the labor force in 1974, only 3.1 million (7.2 percent) stated they wanted a job at that time. This proportion does not differ substantially from previous periods. The major reason given for lack of interest in a job by 4 out of 5 women was home responsibilities. Other reasons given were ill health or the fact that the woman was still in school.

Almost a third of the women not in the labor force—and more than a third of those who were not seeking jobs—were 60 years and over. They account for 30 percent of the women who are family heads.

Among those who would like a job, 4 out of 10 cited home responsibilities as the reason they are not in the work force. Fewer than 1 out of 6 indicated that they did not think they could find a job. Relatively small proportions considered their lack of training or education or their youth or age as barriers to being hired. Nearly three-fourths of the women who gave home responsibilities as the reason they do not have a job, even though they would like one, are in the prime working ages.

It is impossible to give a very accurate answer to the question of how many girls and women not in the labor force would seek employment if they could make different arrangements for handling home responsibilities. However, in 1974 there were about 1 million women 16 to 59 years of age in the labor force who said they wanted jobs but were not looking for work because of home responsibilities. Similarly, there were almost 400,000 nonworking women 16 to 59 who reported that although they wanted to work they were not looking for jobs because they thought that age, lack of skills, personal handicaps, or other reasons would prevent them from obtaining jobs.

Women Workers
in
Japan

STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE—Chapter 1

Along with the progress of social and industrial development of the country, women have become more active in every field of social activity. Especially the recovery and development of Japan's economy after World War II have led to a remarkable increase in the number of women engaged in economic activities. Particularly since around 1955, as a result of changes in the industrial structure and in the course of a continuous outflow of agricultural workers into other industries, the number of women workers in nonagricultural industries has greatly increased, eventually accounting for a third of all workers in paid employment.

Along with the increase in the number of women workers and technological innovations, the popularization of higher education and other factors have led to an expansion of the scope of job opportunities for women. Also, in recent years the employment of middle-aged and older women, especially housewives, has conspicuously increased, resulting in changes in the structure of the female labor force.

Although the employment of women has expanded in the course of high economic growth, women's employment is susceptible to influences of economic fluctuation. Consequently, there was a decline in the number of women in employment in 1974, when a minus economic growth rate was recorded for the first time since the war. Over the long term, however, the factors which have led to the expansion of women's employment may be defined as follows.

The major factors on the side of demand can be listed as: the increased need for labor caused by high economic growth; shortage of young labor supplied by new school graduates, which was caused by the higher educational attainment among boys and girls as well as the decline in the birth rate; and mechanization and automation of production as a result of technological innovations, which were accompanied by the expansion of employment opportunities in simple and unskilled labor areas.

On the other hand, there were some factors as well on the side of women themselves. Firstly, with the higher level of living standard, and especially in recent years because of high prices of commodities and anxiety for one's old age, need for additional income was keenly felt. Secondly, as a result of popularization of higher education, interest in social participation increased among women. In the third place, with fewer children in a family than before, the length of the childrearing period was shortened for women. Another factor was the extension of leisure hours as a result of the spread of electrical tools and appliances which simplified household chores.

Employment Status of Women

Participation of Women in Economic Activities

As of 1974 the number of women in the labor force was 19,960,000, or 38 percent of the total labor force. The labor force participation rate of women (computed on the basis of the female population 15 years of age and over) was 47 percent. As for the marital status of women in the labor force, 63 percent were married, 26 percent were single, and the remaining 11 percent were widowed or divorced. The labor force participation rate was highest for single women (56 percent), followed by married women (46 percent) and widowed and divorced women (37 percent).

By age group, more than half (58 percent) of the women in the labor force were middle aged or older; that is, 35 years old or over. The comparatively low labor force participation rate for widows and divorcees may be attributable to the fact that many of them were in advanced ages.

Seven percent of women in the labor force were family heads, 52 percent were the wives of family heads, 31 percent were other family members, and 10 percent consisted of one-person households. The labor force participation rate was highest for female family heads (65 percent), followed by those who made up one-person households (63 percent). The percentage was lower for wives of family heads as well as for other family members—44 and 43 percent, respectively.

By type of household, 17 percent of these women belonged to agricultural households (households with 10 ares[1] or more of cultivated land), 19 percent to nonagricultural households (households with no ares or less than 10 ares of cultivated land) headed by self-employed persons, and 43 percent to households headed by workers in paid employment. Thus, the last category of households was the source of nearly half of the female labor force. The labor force participation rates of female members of different types of households were: 63 percent for one-person households, 59 percent for

[1] The U.S. equivalent of 10 ares is 0.2470 acre.

agricultural households, 59 percent for nonagricultural households headed by self-employed persons, and 38 percent for households headed by wage earners. These figures indicate that the labor force participation of women was much higher for agricultural households than for wage earners' households.

The number of women not in the labor force in 1974 was 22,760,000, of which 15,560,000 (68 percent) were homemakers; 3,350,000 (15 percent) were in school; and 3,850,000 (17 percent) were not working for other reasons. In contrast, the number of men not in the labor force was 7,230,000, of which 57 percent attended school; 1 percent were engaged in housework; and 42 percent were not working for other reasons.

Of the female labor force, 19,700,000 were employed, and 260,000 were unemployed. The unemployment rate (the proportion of the unemployed among the female labor force population) was 1.3 percent. The number of unemployed men was 460,000, and the unemployment rate was 1.4 percent, slightly over that of women. This somewhat smaller unemployment rate for women may be partly attributable to the fact that some women who were separated from employment had given up staying in the labor market as unemployed, and had shifted into the population not in the labor force.

Expansion of Employment Opportunities for Women

Changes in Women's Employment by Employment Status

Formerly most women workers were employed as family workers in agriculture. However, with high economic growth in the two decades following 1955, an increasing number of women have had access to paid employment in sectors other than agriculture. In 1974 the majority of the female work force was in nonagricultural industries.

Up to 1950 about 60 percent of women workers were engaged in agriculture. This proportion subsequently declined and in 1974, 83 percent of all women workers were in nonagricultural sectors. The percentage of men in nonagricultural work was even higher—91 percent.

In 1950 the proportion of family workers in the total number of working women was 61 percent, while that of paid employees was 26 percent (accounting for 26 percent of all workers in paid employment). The number of women in paid employment subsequently rose steadily, reaching 11,710,000 in 1974, or 59 percent of all employed women (32 percent of all workers in paid employment). The proportion of family workers decreased to 25 percent, while that of self-employed women remained almost stationary at the level of 15 percent. Among all male workers, numbering 32,320,000, the proportion of paid employees was even higher—75 percent; self-employed workers accounted for 20 percent; and family workers, only 4 percent.

On the other hand, the number of female employees decreased in three industrial groups—agriculture, forestry, and hunting; fishery and related industries; and mining.

Within manufacturing, during the decade 1960 to 1970, over 100-percent increases were recorded in the number of women workers in such branches of products as furniture and fitting, electrical machinery and appliances, transport machinery and appliances, precision machinery and appliances, metal products, general machinery, and weapons. During this period, female employment declined in the textile industry.

In 1974 manufacturing industries had the largest number of employed women (3,900,000), followed by wholesale and retail (2,840,000) and service industries (2,990,000). More than 80 percent of women workers were concentrated in the above three groups of industries.

Changes in Women's Paid Employment by Industries

As stated above, the number of women workers in nonagricultural sectors has increased substantially. Especially in recent years the increase has been most conspicuous in wholesale and retail and in service industries. Though manufacturing industries have the greatest share of the female labor force in paid employment, the number of women workers has continuously declined in the textile industry, which formerly was the typical employment field for women. The number of women workers has steadily increased in heavy industries such as metal and machine manufacturing.

During the 10 years from 1960 to 1970 the absolute number of female workers most notably increased in wholesale and retail, manufacturing, and service industries. Increasing rates were highest in finance, insurance, and real estate, as well as in wholesale and retail. Of all workers in paid employment the proportion of women was largest in service industries, where nearly half (48 percent) were women, followed by finance and insurance (41 percent) and wholesale and retail (41 percent).

Changes in Women's Employment by Occupations

In the 10-year period from 1960 to 1970, women's employment increased in all types of jobs except those related to farming, forestry and fishery, and mining and quarrying. The increase in absolute number was especially notable for clerical workers, operatives, laborers, and sales workers, while the rate of increase was largest for managerial workers, followed by clerical, sales, and professional and technical workers.

In the last-mentioned occupational group, the continuous expansion of which is due largely to the popularisation of higher education among girls, traditional professions for women such as medical and health workers (about 500,000) and teachers (370,000) constitute an overwhelming majority. In recent years, though, employment has expanded in new occupations such as artists, designers, photographers, musicians, stage artists, professional sportsmen, and technicians.

The occupational distribution of women workers in 1974 shows clerical workers (3,710,000) as the largest group, followed by operatives and production process laborers (3,120,000), service workers (1,550,000), professional and technical workers (1,250,000), and sales workers (1,240,000). Women accounted for more than half (52 percent) of all workers in service occupations. They also held relatively large proportions of all clerical jobs (47 percent) and professional and technical occupations (44 percent). On the other hand, women in managerial jobs made up only 1.0 percent of all female employees, or 5.8 percent of all workers in this category, although the increase rate was as high as 50 percent in 1972 and 22 percent in 1973. In contrast, male workers in managerial jobs accounted for 7.3 percent of all men in paid employment.

Increasing Women's Employment in Men's Jobs in Manufacturing Industries

The mechanization and automation of production processes, enabled by technological developments, have been accompanied by a rapid increase in the number of operatives and unskilled laborers employed in manufacturing industries, and have gradually changed the characteristic aspects of these occupational fields. Traditionally the largest group of women workers were engaged in silk reeling and cotton spinning. This group, which accounted for 27 percent of all female employees in 1960, diminished to a minority of 15 percent in 1970. An increased number of women were engaged in electrical machinery assembling and repairing, metal processing, and general machinery assembling and repairing.

According to the results of a survey conducted by the Women's and Minors' Bureau in 1969, in 22 percent of all establishments in manufacturing industries steps were taken during the prior 3 years to place women in the posts formerly filled by men, and 18 percent of these establishments newly recruited women as production workers. The reason most often given by employers for the replacement of men by women was "certain alterations were made to some of men's jobs to make them suitable to women," followed by "mechanization has made the job suitable to women," "women were found capable to perform the job," and "because of shortage of male workers." "Women were found capable to perform the job" was often mentioned in relation to professional and technical occupations, including programer; clerical jobs; and drafting and tracing. In the case of operatives and other production workers, major reasons were: "mechanization has made the job suitable to women," "because of the shortage of male workers," and "because wages are lower for women than for men."

Characteristics of the Female Labor Force in Recent Years

Increased Labor Force Participation of Older and Married Women in Paid Employment

Until recently the bulk of the female work force consisted of young unmarried women. However, in the process of the expansion of women's employment under the impact of the high growth rate of the economy, the percentage of young women in paid employment declined sharply. In 1955 young women under 30 years of age constituted 69 percent of the female labor force in paid employment. The increasing tendency among mature women to go to work has since changed the situation. In 1974 women 30 years old and over accounted for 56 percent of all female employees.

The proportion of married women workers has also increased drastically. In 1955, 65 percent of all female employees were single and 20 percent were married (husband present). By 1974 the proportion of all women workers who were single had dropped to 39 percent, while that of married women increased to 50 percent. With an additional 11 percent who were widowed or divorced, the percentage of ever-married women amounted to 60 percent.

increasing Employment of Women With Higher Educational Background

With a rising tendency for girls to go on to higher grades of education, the percentage of those who have completed higher education has gradually increased among women workers. According to the Employment Status Survey (1974), 41 percent of women workers in paid employment had completed elementary education (that is, junior high school, or primary school under the old system); 45 percent had completed secondary education (senior high school, or middle school under the old system); 13 percent had completed higher education (junior college, vocational college, and university); and 0.9 percent were in school. In recent years the proportion of the elementary education group has declined and that of the secondary education group has remained almost stationary, while the higher education group has somewhat swelled in proportion from 10 percent in 1971 and 8 percent in 1968.

The survey also indicates that of all women 15 years old and over who had completed elementary education, 23 percent were in paid employment. The comparable

proportion for those who had completed secondary education was 34 percent, and for those who had completed higher education, 42 percent. This means that with higher educational attainment women were more often in paid employment.

Increasing Part-Time Employment for Women

Along with the growing tendency for married women to go into paid work, the number of women in part-time employment has in recent years remarkably increased. In 1974 nonagricultural women workers in paid employment who worked less than 35 hours a week numbered 1,840,000, or more than four times the number in 1965 (420,000). The rate of increase during the period was more than that of all women workers. Consequently, the percentage of part-time workers among all female employees rose from 5.4 percent in 1965 to 16 percent in 1974.

According to the results of the Employment Status Survey (1974), out of 7,760,000 women who had no jobs but were willing to have one, 3,050,000—or 39 percent—wanted to work part time. The latter number and percentage show a considerable rise from the corresponding figures for 1968 (1,970,000 or 30 percent) and for 1971 (2,570,000 or 36 percent). Among those who wanted to work part time, 40 percent were 25 to 34 years of age; 28 percent, 35 to 44 years; and 15 percent, 15 to 24 years. Thus the largest proportion was for the age group at which women usually are under a heavy burden of family responsibilities.

Diversification in the Employment Patterns of Women

With the expansion of employment among mature and married women, employment patterns of women have come to be diversified. Besides those who work until marriage, there are some who stay in employment after marriage and even after childbirth. Others who once quit their jobs because of marriage or childbirth re-enter employment when their family responsibilities have lessened. Still others participate in the labor force for the first time when they are mature or older.

According to the Employment Status Survey (1971), in the case of women workers the reasons for leaving their jobs were mostly related to their marriage or childbirth—marriage 30 percent and childbearing 22 percent. On the other hand, a survey conducted by the Women's and Minors' Bureau in 1971 revealed that in only 14 percent of the establishments surveyed, all women workers were single; in the remaining 86 percent, married women were employed. In half of the latter group of establishments, a number of women had been working from the time before their marriage.

In 1971, 10 percent of all women workers were those who reentered employment after a period of interruption. The average age of these reentrants was 32. They were mostly (70 percent) married, and 80 percent of these married women had children, the youngest of which was 8.6 years old, on the average. According to the Survey on Employment Tendency (1973), 31 percent of women who found jobs during the year and who were not new school graduates had no work experience in paid employment during the past year.

Extension of Length of Service

According to the Basic Survey of Wage Structure, the average length of service (duration of service in the same enterprise) for women workers extended slightly from 3.6 years in 1961 to 5.0 years (5.5 years if service industries are included) in 1974. The above-mentioned survey by the Women's and Minors' Bureau (1971) also reveals that 55 percent of the establishments surveyed had women workers who had been in their employ for more than 10 years. These women workers constituted 8.6 percent of all female employees covered in the survey.

While the average duration of service has been extended in the group of workers 40 years old and over, in the other age groups there was either no change or a diminishing tendency was observed, especially in the age groups 25–29 and 30–34.

Women's Wages

Wage System and Women's Wages

In Japan, due to its historical and social peculiarities, wages have not been determined as occupational wage rates but the formula of wage determination has often been different from one enterprise to another. When enterprises determine wages, certain personal attributes such as educational background, age, and length of service of a worker have generally played an important role as determining factors. Moreover, among these personal factors the weight given to the length of service has been particularly great because of the strong tendency for workers to remain with a single enterprise. A system of periodic wage progression has been adopted in virtually all enterprises; the general practice has been to grant a wage increment taking into consideration workers' performance on the job as their years of service increase. In addition, the fairly widespread practice of paying allowances to cover living expenses, such as family and housing allowances, may be regarded as features of wage determination.

For these reasons, earnings received by women and young workers, whose work experience is limited and who normally are not the main supporter of the family, have been comparatively small. In recent years the wage level for young workers has improved considerably owing to the tight labor market for young workers. At the same time, the wage gap between women and men is small in younger groups. In older groups, however, the wage level for women workers remains comparatively low.

Moreover, in the prevailing climate the female labor force as a whole is still less evaluated than the male labor force. For instance, women workers are treated only as a temporary and complementary [1] work force and have very limited opportunities for capacity development or for promotion and upgrading. This may be regarded as another factor for the lower wage level for women workers.

Wage Level for Women Workers and Wage Differentials Between Women and Men

Since there is no definite concept of the wage rate in Japan, data about wages referred to here represent the total amount of monthly cash earnings received, on the average, by a worker. Under the high growth of the economy, women's wages rose from 12,414 yen [2] in 1960 to 97,392 yen in 1974, increasing approximately 8 times. The yearly increase rates of women's wages during the period were almost always higher than those of men's wages.

Between 1960 and 1974 women's wages (average monthly total cash earnings) rose from 43 percent to 54 percent of men's wages. This indicates a narrowing tendency of the wage gap between women and men. The wage difference further narrows when regular payments alone are compared, excluding overtime pay and special payment such as bonuses. In 1974 the average regular payment for women corresponded to 60 percent of that of men.

The fact that the wage gap between women and men has narrowed, though only gradually, certainly is due to the various changes mentioned above. These include: increased demand for female labor as a consequence of the growing labor shortage; higher educational attainment among women workers; higher age and longer duration of service, on the average; and the fact that the field of employment for women has been slightly expanded, as seen in the increased employment of women in managerial jobs and professional and technical occupations. The wage gap still indicated in statistics may be attributable to the fact that the majority of women workers are concentrated in simple and lighter jobs of low productivity and to the shorter length of service of women workers as compared with that of men workers (5.5 years for women, 9.8 years for men).

Analysis of Wage Differentials Between Women and Men

The basic factors affecting the wage gap between women and men may be found in the difference between the fields of employment of women and men and the shorter length of service of women workers.

Difference in the Fields of Employment

Because women are generally expected to stay in employment only a short period, there is a tendency among employers to consider women workers as a temporary and complementary work force, and some employers are reluctant to recruit women with higher educational background or to provide for women the opportunities for capacity development and promotion. Moreover, those who reenter employment after a long interruption have to be contented with simple and light work since they have no skills. Thus, one of the factors affecting the wage gap is no doubt found in the fact that women are mostly employed in simple and light work.

Difference in Length of Service

As pointed out above, in Japan, where the so-called seniority wage system has been widely adopted, personal attributes, especially length of service, are important elements in wage determination. Naturally, the shorter length of service of women workers than that of men workers is a factor affecting wage differentials between women and men. The shorter length of service for women is largely due to interruptions in their worklife, which women often experience owing to marriage, childbirth, or childrearing. On the other hand, employers are, as pointed out already, strongly inclined to regard women workers as a temporary and complementary work force. Also, there are some who apply to women workers compulsory retirement upon marriage or a retirement age far earlier than that applied to men.

In recent years, as a result of changes in the labor supply and demand relations and in the conditions of labor, there has been a tendency to introduce a wage system under which function and job content are taken into account as wage determining factors, in addition to personal attributes such as length of service, for the purpose of expediting labor mobility and effective utilization of workers' potentialities. However, in the situation where the majority of women workers are concentrated in complementary jobs and unskilled labor which rarely provide opportunities for promotion and upgrading, it cannot be expected that the introduction of pay according to function and job content will be directly effective for the dwindling of the wage gap between women and men.

When we compare women's wages with men's by monthly total cash earnings, in addition to the facts mentioned above, the difference between the hours worked by women and men is a factor in the wage gap. In 1974 the average number of hours actually worked in a month by women was 163.9, somewhat less than the

[1] Supplementary; not considered part of the permanent work force.

[2] A yen is currently worth about three-tenths U.S. cent (297.6 yen equaled $1 in August 1975). Thus, the wages quoted rose from about $41.71 monthly in 1960 to $327.26 in 1974.

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180.6 hours worked by men. These hours included overtime which was 4.5 for women and 16.6 for men. This indicates that much of the difference in hours worked is due to the difference in overtime for which extra wages were paid. In this respect, we have already pointed out that statistics show a smaller wage gap between women and men when regular payments alone are compared, excluding payment for overtime.

Wages in Japan often include various allowances to cover living costs, such as family and housing allowances, which have little to do with job content or hours worked. Since women workers are rarely principal supporters of their families, these living allowances are paid mainly to men who are family heads, but seldom to women. The difference in the amount of living allowances received by women and men no doubt constitutes one of the factors affecting the wage differentials.

There have been some instances of wage discrimination based on sex, as for instance the failure to pay a certain allowance to a woman for the reason that she is a woman in spite of her full eligibility for the payment. (In these cases the inspector takes action to remedy the situation.)

MEASURES FOR WOMEN WORKERS—Chapter 2

Measures by the Government

Administrative Arrangements

Of 13 ministries in the Government of Japan, the particular matters concerning women workers are mainly taken charge of by the Ministry of Labor and the Ministry of Health and Welfare.

Ministry of Labor

In the Ministry of Labor the Women's and Minors' Bureau is charged with the responsibilities for matters relating to women workers and for the improvement of the status of women as a whole. The Bureau is staffed with 64 men and women at the central office, as well as with 180 female staffs across the country in 47 local offices, one in every prefecture, under the direct supervision of the national office.

In the central office, one of the four Divisions in the Bureau, the Women Workers' Division, is responsible for women workers' problems. The Bureau undertakes surveys and educational campaigns, and offers guidance to local governments, employers, and workers. It enforces the Working Women's Welfare Law under its jurisdiction. The Bureau further deals with matters concerning the establishment, revision, abolishment, and interpretation of related stipulations of the Labor Standards Law with special reference to women.

There is the Advisory Committee on Women's and Minors' Problems of a tripartite nature attached to the Bureau, which has the advisory function to the Ministry of Labor. Attached to the local offices is a network of Extension Agents, consisting of 3,000 learned citizens, appointed by the Minister, who assist the work of the local offices on a voluntary basis.

The Bureau carries out such works as:

- Finding facts, collecting information by means of field surveys, meeting of experts.
- Educating the public by organizing meetings and campaigns and publishing materials, as well as through the mass media.
- Administering the matters concerning the establishment, revision, abolishment, and interpretation of the provisions of the Labor Standards Law with special reference to women, and advising the Director-General of the Labor Standards Bureau concerning matters relating to the enforcement of the said provisions of the law.
- Taking measures to promote the welfare of working women specified by the Working Women's Welfare Law, including formulation of the basic welfare policies.
- Subsidizing local autonomous bodies to encourage and help them develop appropriate works for the needs of the area, such as the establishment of welfare facilities. There are now 63 working women's welfare centers and 48 industrial homework consulting centers.
- Offering cooperation to the work of the U.N. Commission on the Status of Women and inviting to seminars women officials from countries in the Asian region.

Other Bureaus of the Ministry of Labor are closely related to the work of the Women's and Minors' Bureau through their own functions. The Labor Standards Bureau enforces the Labor Standards Law, including protective provisions for women and young workers. It also enforces the Industrial Home Work Law which is to protect industrial homeworkers. The Labor Standards Bureau has 47 prefectural labor standards bureaus, one in each prefecture, and 348 labor standards inspection offices throughout the country, with a total staff of 9,000, among which 3,000 (about 50 are women) are professional labor inspectors who visit shops and factories to inspect labor conditions.

Matters of employment opportunity are taken care of by the Employment Security Bureau, which has 500 employment security offices all over the country with a staff of 16,000. In some large offices there is a special corner for women, called Women's Corner, which takes care of professional occupations for women. The vocational training is exercised by the Vocational Training Bureau, with 440 vocational training centers.

Ministry of Health and Welfare

The Ministry of Health and Welfare has a Children and Families Bureau in which the Mothers' and Dependent Children's Welfare Division is in charge of the matters concerning child care and welfare of widowed mothers and their children. The Division gives supervision and guidance on, as well as subsidies for, the installation and management of welfare facilities, which include day care centers for children of working mothers. The Division also is responsible for training nurses and personnel for welfare institutions.

Others

In regard to women working in agriculture, the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry implements

various projects to give information necessary for their production and for improving their working and living environments in rural villages.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for the education of women, including women workers. The school attendance rate of girls in compulsory education of 9 years is nearly 100 percent; in high school of 3 years, it is 90 percent. The Women's Education Division of the Ministry of Education is responsible for education outside the school system. Through local Boards of Education, they organize various educational activities for women.

The Prime Minister's Office organizes coordination meetings several times a year for the various Ministries concerned.

Legislation

The Constitution of Japan, promulgated in November 1946 as the mainstay of the postwar democratic reformation of the country, granted Japanese women basic human rights comparable to those enjoyed by women in other modern countries, and at the same time proclaimed that women are entitled to every right—political, economic, and social—on equal terms with men.

Laws and Regulations Concerning Equality of the Sexes in Employment

• The Employment Security Law (art. 3) prohibits discrimination based on sex in employment exchange, vocational guidance, etc., embodying the principle of equality before law (art. 14) and the right to freedom to choose one's occupation (art. 22) insured in the Constitution.

• The Constitution also guarantees the right of workers to organize and to bargain and act collectively (art. 28). Besides, the Trade Union Law (art. 5) stipulates that the constitution of the trade union shall include a provision prohibiting discrimination on the ground of sex as regards the qualification for union membership.

• For the purpose of improving the social and economic status of women workers, which was hitherto lower than that of male workers, the Labor Standards Law (art. 4) prohibits discrimination because of sex concerning wages. In regard to discrimination in working conditions other than wages, there is no provision prohibiting discrimination based on sex, though the same law (art. 3) prohibits discrimination on grounds of nationality, creed, or social status.

• In correspondence with the provisions in the Labor Standards Law which are applied to general workers other than public employees, the National Public Service Law (art. 27) and the Local Public Service Law (art. 13) prohibits sex discrimination for public employees.

• The Civil Law is a basic law regulating rights and obligations of private individuals, and providing general rules governing all kinds of private acts. As such it stipulates in article 1 that the law shall be interpreted on the basis of the recognition of the essential equality of the sexes. Also, article 90 denies any legal effect of "an act which has for its objects such matters as are contrary to public policy or good morals," and it is understood that the principle of equality of the sexes makes up part of the "public policy" referred to in this provision.

The Working Women's Welfare Law, promulgated in 1972, lays down the fundamental principles concerning the welfare of women workers and states that due consideration should be given to women workers so that they may "secure a working life with a sense of fulfillness, by making the best use of their abilities, with their maternity respected and yet without discrimination based on sex."

Laws and Regulations Concerning Protection of Women Workers

The Labor Standards Law, which came into force in 1947 in compliance with the provision of article 27 of the Constitution, has established minimum standards regarding working hours, rest, and other working conditions. The law, as well as the Ordinance on Labor Standards for Women and Minors, provides for limitations on working hours, prohibition against employment in hazardous or injurious jobs, maternity protection, and other matters relating to working conditions of women workers.

The scope of working hours is limited, as a general rule, to 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week. Even when the extension of working hours is sanctioned through the agreement between representatives of workers and the employer, the extension shall not exceed 2 hours per day, 6 hours per week, and 150 hours in a year. (Labor Standards Law, arts. 32, 36, and 61)

The employer must provide at least 1 rest day per week to the worker, and as a rule is not allowed to employ women workers on the rest day. (L.S.L., arts. 35, 36, and 61)

The employer is not allowed to employ women workers during the night from 10 p.m. to 5 a.m., except those engaged in certain jobs (hygiene and sanitation services, entertainment and recreation services, telephone service, airplane stewardess, producer and announcer in the enterprise of broadcasting, etc.). (L.S.L., arts. 62 and 8, Ordinance on Labor Standards for Women and Minors, art. 6)

The employer is not allowed to employ women in certain hazardous and injurious jobs (operating power-driven cranes; conveying heavy weight goods; jobs in places where gas, vapor, or dust of injurious substances such as lead and mercury are generated; jobs in mines;

etc.). (L.S.L., arts. 63 and 64, Ordinance on Labor Standards for Women and Minors, arts. 7–9)

When a woman worker is pregnant, she is entitled, at her request, to a leave of 6 weeks before childbirth and, as a rule, 6 weeks' leave after childbirth, which is compulsory of the employer. Also, when the pregnant woman requires, the employer must change her to a lighter job. (L.S.L., art. 65.). Furthermore, the employer is not allowed to discharge a woman who is pregnant or who has given birth during the period of leave stipulated in the law and for 30 days thereafter. (L.S.L., art. 19)

A woman nursing a child less than 1 year old is entitled to nursing time twice a day, each at least 30 minutes, in addition to ordinary recesses. (L.S.L., art. 66)

A woman worker who suffers heavily from menstruation or who is employed in a job injurious to menstruation (including jobs in which extreme mental and nervous tension is involved and jobs which require a lot of muscular labor) is entitled to menstruation leave at her request. (L.S.L., art. 67, Ordinance on Labor Standards for Women and Minors, art. 11)

Working Women's Welfare Law

The Working Women's Welfare Law was enacted and came into force in 1972. The purpose of this law is to clarify the fundamental principles concerning the welfare of women workers, to strengthen the actions taken by the State and local public bodies for the promotion of the welfare of women workers, and to urge employers to make efforts for any step effective for the welfare of women workers. The substance of the measures provided in the law to be taken by the State, local public bodies, and employers is as follows:

Measures To Be Taken by the State and Local Public Bodies

Promotion of vocational guidance (art. 7).—Employment security agencies are required to offer employment information and to undertake vocational guidance and employment counseling, taking into consideration the characteristics of women workers in order to help women select suitable jobs and adapt themselves smoothly to the jobs.

Promotion of access to vocational training (art. 8).—The State and prefectural governments are required to undertake educational and informational activities concerning vocational training in order to help women workers acquire skills and develop their abilities, and also to take appropriate measures necessary to facilitate the training of working women, including arrangements to diversify training subjects and the terms of training.

Educational activities (art. 5).—In order to foster better understanding and concern about the welfare of working women, and to increase awareness among working women, the State and local bodies are required to undertake necessary educational activities.

Guidance, counseling, and courses (art. 12).—In order to help women workers enjoy a full worklife with their dual responsibilities at home and at work well harmonized, the State and local bodies are required to undertake more actively guidance and counseling services and training courses on such subjects as living techniques, home management, and health care.

Promotion of welfare centers for working women (art. 13).—Local public bodies are required to establish welfare centers for working women to undertake their overall projects related to the welfare of women workers, and to make efforts for the improvement of the operation of the centers. The State gives to the public bodies subsidies for the establishment of the centers as well as guidance and advice on the method of operation.

Measures To Be Taken by Employers

The Working Women's Welfare Law makes it obligatory for employers to make efforts to work out and implement special arrangements to protect women workers' health during pregnancy and after childbirth, as well as to help them during the childrearing period. As stated above, the Labor Standards Law provides for minimum standards for conditions of work peculiar to working mothers, including maternity leave, transfer to lighter jobs, and nursing time. The Working Women's Welfare Law, on the other hand, specifies measures to be taken by employers as appropriate in their enterprises for the promotion of maternity protection beyond the measures prescribed in the Labor Standards Law.

Arrangements for the health care of working mothers during pregnancy and after childbirth (arts. 9 and 10).—To preserve the health of women workers who are pregnant, or within 1 year after childbirth, the law requires that employers take appropriate measures such as: arrangements to enable pregnant women to have necessary hours to undergo health examinations and receive health guidance; transfer to another duty station or arrange for more flexible business hours to enable these women workers to avoid commutation rush; limitation on overtime and night work; provision of rest rooms.

Arrangements for child care (art. 11).—Employers are urged to introduce child care leave, which enables a working mother with an infant to stay at home for a certain period without losing her employment status at the enterprise and with the guarantee of returning to employment on completion of the leave. Other actions recommended to employers include special arrangements relating to working hours for working mothers whose infants are taken care of at day nurseries, or who want to receive health guidance for their infants, and the provision of a feeding room and other facilities for nursing mothers.

Basic Policy

The Basic View on Women's Employment

When we consider welfare measures for women workers, the first question we encounter is how we should evaluate women's employment and what standpoint should be taken in the matter. The Labor Ministry established in 1971 the Conference on Women's Employment, consisting of experts in different fields. The group was entrusted to study the problem objectively and technically to find out the most reasonable viewpoint regarding the employment of women, especially married women, in the context of the national economy, childrearing, education, and the status of women. After prolonged discussion and study the Conference submitted a report. Its conclusion was based on the following idea: the question of whether or not a mother of small children should go to work is a question to be decided not universally by society but individually by women themselves with their independent judgement, and the responsibility of the government is to provide an environment and conditions in which women can freely choose their own way.

The Ministry of Labor, following the principles expressed in the report, consolidated the basic ideas to be embodied in the law concerning the welfare of working women. It then asked the opinion of the Advisory Council of Women's and Minors' Problems, composed of experts and representatives of labor and management, and subsequently drew up a bill for the Working Women's Welfare Law, which later was submitted to the Parliament.

Formulation of the Basic Policy for the Welfare of Working Women

In compliance with the provision of the Working Women's Welfare Law of 1972, the Minister of Labor formulated in 1973 the "Basic Policy for the Welfare of Working Women."

On the basis of an outlook on the future trends of the working life and family life of women workers, the basic policy refers to three points as the major problems in promoting the status and welfare of women workers: how to develop and make full use of women's abilities, how to protect the health of women workers as mothers, and how to harmonize their dual responsibilities at home and at work. Further, the most important countermeasures to be implemented in the coming 5 years are mentioned in it as follows: (a) creation of a social climate favorable to promotion of the welfare of working women; (b) promotion of better work environment; (c) formulation of a guideline concerning health preservation for working mothers and improvement of administrative arrangements to strengthen guidance service for employers; (d) promotion of child care leave; and (e) establishment of welfare centers for women workers.

Assistance in Finding Employment

Vocational Guidance

Public employment security offices scattered all over the country, and numbering about 500, undertake vocational guidance as part of the employment exchange service. For part-time jobseekers—who are mostly housewives—such employment service is offered at each of these offices. Besides, 15 so-called Terminal Employment Information Bureaus have been established since 1970 near terminal stations in big cities to offer employment services, including vocational guidance.

Vocational Training

By 1975, about 440 public vocational training centers had been established by the State, local governments, and the Employment Promotion Projects Corporation. These schools provide general training in such trades as sewing, office work, beauty art, machine drafting, hair cutting, and construction drafting. They also provide occupational capacity redevelopment training in office work, sewing, drafting, dressmaking, typing, machine drafting, tailoring, knitting, and beauty art. Besides, in eight schools located in major cities, training in domestic science and catering service is provided to middle-aged and older women with a view toward promoting their employment.

Short-Term Vocational Training

In addition to the regular training schemes mentioned above, prefectural women's and minors' offices organize short-term training courses of 2 weeks duration in medical office work, office work related to workers' social security, drafting, and apparel sales work for the purpose of facilitating employment of middle-aged and older women. Some prefectural governments have undertaken surveys and training courses to promote reentrance into the labor force of housewives who are qualified as hospital nurses or day nurses.

Measures for Part-Time Employment

The accelerated labor shortage in recent years has led to an increased demand for a part-time work force. On the other hand, there has been an increasing number of women, mainly housewives, who want to be employed part time as a result of various changes, including changes in the mode of living.

However, since part-time employment started rather recently in this country, this pattern of employment has not yet been fully systematized. Consequently, there are at present various problems to be solved regarding part-time employment. For instance, on the side of employers, serious attention is not paid to the employment management for part-time workers, and on the side of workers, awareness as workers is lacking.

The Ministry of Labor, in the effort to establish better arrangements for adequate employment service for part-time workers, is carrying out the following measures.

- To set up special corners for part-time workers in the major public employment security offices where applicants for part-time employment are particularly numerous;
- To conduct an employment exchange service for part-time workers at the so-called terminal employment counseling offices set up at terminals in large cities for the convenience of the public;
- To offer guidance service and courses to those who want to work part time, for the purpose of enabling them to utilize effectively their abilities and aptitudes harmonizing their family responsibilities with their worklife;
- To give guidance to employers for the improvement of employment management and working conditions for part-time workers; and
- To accept job applications by mail and job orders by telephone.

Job Security

Day Care Centers

The greatest obstacle that hinders the continuation of a woman's work career is found in her responsibilities related to childrearing, and as a means of solving this problem efforts are being made to expand the network of day care centers. Minimum standards for child welfare facilities are provided for authorized day care centers, both public and private, established and operated under the provisions of the Child Welfare Law in order to insure the welfare of children. Guidance and supervision are conducted also to maintain a certain standard in the operation and equipment of these facilities. All of these centers receive subsidies from the State as well as from the local governments for equipment and cost of operation. Consequently, the number of centers has been increasing yearly and their operation improving.

In 1974 there were 17,342 centers throughout the country. The percentage of the whole capacity as against the population of children of nursery age indicates that the situation is by no means worse than that in Western countries. Nevertheless, because of the drastic increase in the demand for child care facilities, owing to the swell in the number of women workers in recent years, the shortage of day care centers is keenly felt.

For admission into a day care center it is required that the mother of the child or other relatives living with the child not be in the position to take care of the child; for instance, that the mother has a job outside the home or in the home, that the child has no mother, or that the mother is ill or is attending a sick person. In any of these cases the child is qualified for admission irrespective of the amount of income earned by the family to which the child belongs. If the household income exceeds a certain amount, the family has to pay part or all of the nursing expenses. The nursing fee is standardized in several grades according to the income of the family and the age of the child.

If the child belongs to a "protected family" under the Livelihood Protection Law or to a family exempted from the payment of inhabitants' tax for the previous year, nursing service is provided free. For other families the nursing fee is classified into nine grades according to income tax and inhabitants' tax assessment. For children under 3 years of age the fee is a little higher in each grade than for children over 3 years because a larger number of nurses are required for the younger group. When a family has more than two children cared for in a day care center the fee is reduced to a half of the standard amount for the second and younger children. On the other hand, certain families may be asked to pay an additional amount according to the municipal property tax assessment for the families.

Child Care Leave

There are many women who have unwillingly given up a work career because of child care responsibilities, in spite of their will to continue to work after childbirth. To remedy the situation, the Government is trying to provide guidance service to employers for the purpose of promoting introduction of the above-mentioned child care leave scheme. Due to the employment practices in this country where life-long employment and the seniority wage system are still prevalent, after a woman (or even a man) once leaves a job, reentrance into employment is fairly difficult for her, and even if she has succeeded in getting a job, she is often obliged to accept unfavorable working conditions. Therefore, child care leave is considered to be fairly effective in safeguarding women's employment and in ameliorating their working conditions.

As to the payment of salaries during child care leave, the matter is left to the individual decision of labor and management concerned, as laid down in the working regulations or labor agreement. The decision may be made taking into consideration practices in the cases of other types of leaves as well as the payment capacity of the enterprise. In actual instances, however, leave without pay is predominant. As a matter of fact, the leave is a relatively long one, and during the time household expenses swell considerably because of delivery and nursing of the newborn child. Besides, in case the worker remains insured by the health insurance and employees' pension insurance, she has to pay the portion of contribution payable by the insured. For these reasons it has been pointed out that

in order to make child care leave more accessible to women workers some measures are needed for financial assistance to protect their living during the leave.

As stated above, the Labor Standards Law provides for maternity leave and prohibits the discharge of women workers during the period of the leave and 30 days thereafter. But the law does not specify the payment of wages during the leave period, leaving it to the decision of labor and management concerned. In actual cases maternity leave with pay is provided in about a little over 30 percent of the enterprises. However, a woman worker insured by the health insurance receives a maternity allowance from the insurance fund as described in the following section.

Maternity Benefits and Other Social Insurance Benefits

Under the existing social insurance system, cash benefits are paid within the schemes of health insurance, workmen's accident compensation insurance, employment insurance, and employees' pension insurance to compensate for loss of wages due to illness, injury, delivery, unemployment, old age, etc. Among these schemes, workmen's accident compensation insurance, employment insurance, and employees' pension insurance are administered by the Government. Under the health insurance scheme, workers are insured either by the Health Insurance Association organized in the enterprise in which they are employed, or by the Government in case the enterprise has no such association for the workers it employs.

Health Insurance

Under health insurance, benefits are paid for illness, injury, and death arising from causes out of duty and also for delivery. Benefits peculiar to women workers include childbirth expenses, maternity allowance, and nursing allowance. The benefit paid as childbirth expenses is a lump sum corresponding to half of the standard monthly remuneration, and this is paid in the case of delivery to an insured person. Maternity allowance is a benefit (corresponding to 60 percent of the standard daily remuneration per day) paid to an insured person for the number of days she was absent from work because of childbirth, provided such absence was within 42 days before and 42 days after childbirth. Nursing allowance is a lump sum of 2,000 yen,[1] which the insured person receives if she is nursing her newborn child.

Employment Insurance

The employment insurance scheme, which has been started since April 1975 following a drastic revision of the former unemployment insurance scheme, aims at stabilizing the livelihood of the unemployed by paying benefits. In addition, it aims at the promotion of employment opportunities through facilitating jobseeking activities, the improvement of employment structure to insure job security, the development of workers' capacities, and the promotion of the welfare of employees.

Unemployment benefits are classified into two groups of allowances: job applicant benefits and employment promotion benefits. The former includes basic allowance, skill acquisition allowance, lodging allowance, and sickness and injury allowance. The employment promotion benefits include outfit allowance for full-time employment, removal allowance, and wider area jobseeking allowance. The amount of basic allowance, which is the most basic part of the benefits, is the equivalent of 60 to 80 percent of the recipient's earnings in the previous employment, the higher rates being applicable to lower wage earners. With regard to the duration of the benefits, recipients are graded into four groups according to the degree of difficulties in finding employment due to age and other factors. The lowest grade is applicable to those under 30 years, who receive benefits for 90 days, and the highest to those 55 years old and over, who receive benefits for 300 days. From the consideration of the welfare of women workers, a new provision allows for extension of the benefit period which is 1 year as a rule to 4 years at the most, in case the recipients were separated from employment for compelling reasons such as childbirth or child care, and so they may receive the basic allowance when they are able to apply for a job.

Certain programs called Employment Improvement program, Capacity Development program, and Employment Welfare program are to be implemented, with the premiums paid by the employer as the sole financial resources. As part of the Employment Improvement program, employment incentive money will be granted to employers to encourage the introduction of child care leave and the employment of widows, for the purpose of preventing unemployment and promoting job opportunities for women workers.

Workmen's Accident Compensation Insurance

The object of the workmen's accident compensation insurance is to provide workers with protection against injury, disease, invalidity, or death resulting from employment, and to make necessary facilities for the welfare of the workers.

The insurance benefits paid either to the victim worker or the worker's family include medical compensation, nonduty compensation, compensation for physical handicaps, compensation for the bereaved family, expenses for funeral rites, and compensation for long-term disability. Under the provisions of the law, women are sometimes more favorably treated than men in the

[1] A yen is currently worth about three-tenths U.S. cent; 297.6 yen equaled $1 in August 1975.

grading of physical handicaps for which compensation for physical handicaps is paid. For instance, in case a female worker has remarkable deformities left on her external appearances, she is entitled to compensation for 7th grade (131 days of average daily wages a year as long as the physical handicaps exist), whereas a male worker who has the same handicaps is paid compensation for 12th grade (a lump sum equivalent to 156 days of average daily wages).

Employees' Pension Insurance

The employees' pension insurance is designed to protect workers against old age, invalidity, and death by paying benefits either in the form of pension (old-age pension, invalidity pension, and survivors' pension) or in the form of a lump sum (invalidity allowance and withdrawal grant). Thus, it contributes to the stabilization of the livelihood and promotion of the welfare of workers and their families.

As to old-age pension, some differences are provided between women and men with respect to pensionable age and other terms of payment. A male worker is entitled to an old-age pension at the age of 60 if his insured term of coverage is 20 years or more (15 years or more after the age of 40). For a female the pensionable age is 55, and the required term of coverage is 20 years or more (15 years or more after the age of 35).

Survey and Research Activities

The Women's and Minors' Bureau of the Ministry of Labor has been making efforts to identify facts about women workers and the trends of their problems by carrying out studies and surveys of various kinds. These include surveys on the implementation of maternity protection and other aspects of working conditions of women, and opinion surveys covering labor, management, and the public to clarify their views concerning welfare measures for women workers. Also, the Bureau has established several research committees to examine the standards of administrative guidance in different areas of women workers' problems. Among these committees are the Expert Meeting Concerning Health Care of Working Mothers, Research Meeting Concerning Child Care Leave, and Research Meeting on Equality in Employment—all of which are composed of experts and scholars. Research is going on through the operation of the Research Meeting on the Labor Standards Law established in 1969, to study from factual and legal viewpoints the problems involved in the implementation of the Labor Standards Law, including the provisions related to maternity protection.

The Prime Minister's office also carries out from time to time opinion surveys on women's employment. For the 2 years 1972 and 1973 the Office had under it a Research Commission on Women's Problems, through which it undertook, in cooperation with the Women's and Minors' Bureau, a comprehensive study on all aspects of women's life, including worklife, by means of various surveys and lectures by experts.

Besides, many of the labor departments or welfare departments of local governments carried out in recent years surveys on facts or opinions concerning the worklife and family life of working women.

Educational Activities

In order to increase understanding of and concern for the welfare of working women among employers and the general public and to stimulate awareness among working women themselves, the Women's and Minors' Bureau has carried out various educational activities including the Women Workers' Welfare Campaign organized as an annual event in the whole country. Especially in these years the endeavor has been directed toward the abolishment of some unreasonable employment practices such as compulsory retirement for married women and low retirement age applied only to women workers. These practices have been much criticized in recent years as a factor preventing development and full use of women's abilities. The Bureau has been making efforts to enlighten employers as well as workers in this respect by publishing and distributing a collection of court judgments in favor of the causes of women workers who took action against such practices, or by preparing material describing the development of the equality movement in Western countries.

Labor departments of prefectural governments also have been carrying out, independently or in cooperation with the prefectural women's and minors' offices, enlightenment and guidance activities in relation to women workers' problems. This has been done by such means as training courses on labor management organized for employers, training courses for women workers, and seminars for female members of labor unions.

Activities of Nongovernmental Organizations

Employers' Organizations

There are in Japan six major national federations of employers' organizations: Keidanren (Federation of Economic Associations), Nikkeiren (Japan Federation of Employers Association), Doyukai (Japan Committee for Economic Development), Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry, National Federation of Commercial and Industrial Associations, and Chuokai (Japan Federation of Smaller Enterprise Organizations).

Keidanren (Federation of Economic Associations) is a synthetic economic organization uniting industrial associations. Nikkeiren (Japan Federation of Employers Association) is a federation of industrial, regional, and prefectural associations of employers. This organization is mainly concerned with labor problems, including women workers' problems, which it is tackling very actively. Doyukai (Japan Committee for Economic Development) organizes individual members of financial circles. The Japan Chamber of Commerce and Industry is a federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry in the whole country, each of which is a unit organization in each city, organizing employers of industrial and commercial enterprises located there. It provides business guidance for the members and presents its proposals and demands to the Government. It also deals with employment problems. The National Federation of Commercial and Industrial Associations is a federation of commercial and industrial associations in the whole country, each of which is a unit organization in each town or village, organizing employers of commercial and industrial enterprises located there. Chuokai (Japan Federation of Smaller Enterprise Organizations) undertakes educational and informational activities directed to associations of smaller enterprises.

Nikkeiren (Japan Federation of Employers Association)

The Federation has been actively engaged in various research and studies related to women workers' problems. Among these are surveys and research on the development and use of women workers' abilities, labor management for women in part-time employment, and trends in the employment of new graduates, particularly female graduates. It also offers guidance to employers through member associations with respect to the problems involved in the labor and personnel management for women workers, training for women workers, and realization of their capacities. The Federation tries to reflect its view and opinions in administration by sending its delegates to various committees established by governmental agencies.

Chamber of Commerce and Industry

The Tokyo Chamber of Commerce and Industry is especially active owing to its location in the metropolitan area which is the industrial and administrative center of the country. It has pointed out the necessity of measures relating to the study of partial revision of the Labor Standards Law, promotion of vocational training for women, elimination of unreasonable practices discriminatory against women, and environmental improvement agreeable to the female labor force. It has often presented its proposals to the Government and has been active in the effort to educate the public, including employers and housewives.

Chuokai (Japan Federation of Smaller Enterprise Organizations)

With respect to measures for women workers, the Federation tries to have its members' opinions reflected in the administrative policy by such means as participating in governmental committees. It has also appealed to administrative agencies concerning measures to stabilize the employment of housewives—such as increasing public day care centers and granting low interest loans for child care facilities established by smaller enterprise organizations.

Labor Unions

In 1974 the number of labor unions amounted to 68,000 and the total membership numbered 12.5 million, or 34 percent of all workers in paid employment. Characteristically the labor unions in Japan are organized on a company basis as unions within individual enterprises. About 60 percent of the unions are affiliated with one of the four major national unions: Sohyo (General Council of Trade Unions of Japan), Domei (Japanese Confederation of Labor), Churitsuroren (Federation of Independent Unions), and Shinsanbetsu (National Federation of Industrial Organizations). The biggest of the four is Sohyo, which affiliates 65 local unions, including unions for public employees and public corporation workers as its main force. The total membership of Sohyo numbers 4.34 million, of which 1.1 million are females. On the other hand, Domei organizes mainly unions in private enterprises and its membership numbers 2.3 million, of which one-third are females.

As characteristic of any labor union organized on a company basis, a worker who has been a member is automatically deprived of membership at the moment of her or his separation from the job. As a result, women workers whose duration of service is generally short are less influential than men in the unions. Even where women outnumber men in membership, the leadership of the union's activities is often in the hands of men.

Executive organs of a labor union often include a women's department or women and youth department to deal with women's problems. The activities of women's departments are different from union to union, though in general they can be summarized as follows:

- To educate and enlighten female members so they may participate more actively in the activities of the union, expressing their opinions and performing their role on an equal footing with men; and
- To appeal to the general meeting or executive committee of the union and urge them to include in the union's activities actions for the improvement of working conditions discriminatory against women and

improvement of work environment necessary for maternity protection.

The above-mentioned two largest national unions have also established a women's department (or women and youth department) through which they are tackling women workers' problems. Though measures taken in this respect by the two unions are more or less similar, main activities are as follows:

(a) In order to eliminate sex discrimination in wages, which has been rationalized by the seniority wage system or by the introduction of service allowance or pay according to function, the unions demanded—as part of their spring offensive—elimination of differences between men and women in regard to starting salary and wage progression.

(b) They consider that, owing to the rapid progress of technological innovations which have introduced widespread simple and repetitive labor of high intensity, the number of women workers who suffer from lumbago or peculiar trouble in the neck, shoulder, and arms, or who suffer abnormal pregnancy or miscarriages has been increasing. In view of these facts, the unions are actively appealing to the Government to raise the minimum standards prescribed in the Labor Standards Law and to ratify I.L.O. Convention No. 103. They also endeavor to strengthen the drive in workplaces for the expansion of women's rights pertaining to maternity protection, including extention of maternity leave and initiation of pregnancy leave in case of illness caused by pregnancy.

(c) The need for day care centers for infants and school-age children is felt by working mothers more keenly than ever. Accordingly, the unions are making an appeal to the State and local governments to increase the number of such facilities more speedily.

(d) Of all women workers, those who are union members are only about one-third, the majority remaining unorganized. This is due partly to the large number of women workers in part-time employment. Moreover, there are many who are indifferent to union activities.

In order to increase among women workers the understanding about their position in society, to cultivate among unorganized workers concern for union activities, and to create among organized females better awareness of their role as union members, the unions are carrying out educational and informational activities for unorganized workers. The unions also are carrying out various programs for the education and training of female members and leaders of the unions on such subjects as the present situation of women workers in the labor union, the key points of union activities, and the relationship between the labor union and the community.

(e) The unions have been making appeals to administrative agencies concerning improvement of maternity protection, implementation of equal pay, and promotion of adult education. Also, they are trying to reflect their views and demands in the policy of the Government by sending delegates to various governmental commissions.

Women's Organizations

Most women's organizations in Japan organize mainly housewives who have no job outside the home. Their activities are usually related to the improvement of the status of women in general and consumers' problems, aiming at, for instance, better awareness of women as voters and promotion of the welfare of widowed women. Activities concerning women workers are carried out mainly by organizations of professional women.

National organizations of professional women include those of doctors, hospital nurses, day nurses, teachers, and lawyers, who are organized in their respective groups. They are carrying out such activities as research, publication of material, and training for the purpose of improving their status and vocational capacities. Apart from these organizations of working women in the same profession, there is a group consisting mainly of those who are in administrative posts or who have a long professional career. This organization is working for the improvement of the status of women workers through activities to create favorable public opinion to eliminate discriminatory practices against women, such as the difference in the compulsory retirement age. For the purpose of creating a social environment helpful to women workers, it is tackling day care center and other problems.

The national organizations of professional women are listed below.

Name of organization	*Date of establishment*	*Purpose, main activities*	*Qualification for membership*	*Membership*
Medical Association of Japanese Women.	April 1902.....	Aims at acquiring higher knowledge, cultivating mutual friendship among the members, safeguarding rights, contributing to the society, and promoting the welfare of mankind.	Woman doctor.....	4,500

Name of organization	*Date of establishment*	*Purpose, main activities*	*Qualification for membership*	*Membership*
Japan Midwives Association.	May 1927.....	Improvement of the status of midwives, education of midwives (organizing courses, etc.), enlightenment concerning improvement of health control of the family and maternity protection.	Qualified midwife.....	30,000
Japan Nursing Association.	November 1946.	Promotion of welfare and mutual friendship among public health nurses, midwives, and hospital nurses; promotion of vocational ethics, and technical study on nursing and midwifery.	Qualified public health nurse, midwife, hospital nurse.	142,206
Japan Federation of Nurses.	October 1959...	Improvement of political culture of the members, safeguarding their fundamental rights of living through the activities of local groups.	Qualified public health nurse, midwife, hospital nurse.	80,000
Women Dentists Association.	November 1950.	Advancement of the members and promotion of mutual friendship among them by means of studying cultural and welfare problems and the method of mutual aid, and implementing the results.	Woman dentist.....	1,400
National Association of Women Principals of Public Primary and Middle Schools.	August 1950....	Improvement of the status and quality of women teachers, with mutual cooperation among the members and with the help of women teachers in the whole country.	Woman principal of public primary or middle school.	265
National Association of Women in Educational Occupations.	September 1964.	Promotion of advancement to administrative posts, implementation of child care leave, self-training, reentrance of retired women teachers by way of stabilization of livelihood.	Woman teacher, ex-worker in educational field.	30,000
National Council of Social Welfare, The Workers Association for Day Nursery in Japan.	April 1956.....	Promotion of nursing service by means of liaison and coordination among the members, and study and implementation of better nursing system and practices.	Nurse or principal of day care center.	.....
Japan Women's Bar Association.	August 1950.....	Cultivates mutual friendship among the members; studies and publicizes its opinions concerning matters related to legislation and women's status.	Lawyer, judge, prosecutor, law scholar.	220

Name of organization	*Date of establishment*	*Purpose, main activities*	*Qualification for membership*	*Membership*
Japan Women's Certified Public Tax Accountant Society.	August 1948....	Aims at safeguarding female taxpayers and improvement of the social status of women tax accountants. Studies taxation system applied to women workers and presents its proposal to the Government concerning the improvement of taxation system.	Woman tax accountant.....	
The National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Japan.	November 1958...	Promotion of the interests and vocational standards of professional women; promotion of mutual friendship and understanding among professional women in the country and abroad.	Woman in administrative or professional occupation.....	

CURRENT PROBLEMS OF WOMEN WORKERS—Chapter 3

As stated previously, until the recent past the female work force in Japan consisted mainly of young unmarried women. However, in the process of the increase in the number of women workers, the proportion of single and young workers has declined and that of middle-aged or older married women has increased. Especially the recent increase in the number of female workers is due mostly to the increase in the number of middle-aged or older women who are married.

This qualitative change which has taken place in the female labor force has diversified women workers' problems. Not only the problems relating to working conditions and maternity protection, but also problems such as those concerning expansion of employment opportunities, development and realization of vocational capacities, and harmonization of worklife with family life are now confronting women workers.

How To Make Better Use of Their Abilities

As a result of the increased employment opportunities for women and the prolongation of the aggregate length of their work career in their whole span of life, an increasing need is being felt for providing conditions in which women are able to realize their occupational capacities in full. Still, however, women workers are generally looked upon as a temporary and complementary work force. Actually, employment practices discriminatory against women still prevail in many enterprises where, for instance, women are denied access to training and opportunities for promotion, or rules and practices concerning compulsory retirement because of marriage or childbirth, and retirement age far lower than that for men are applied to women.

On the other hand, aspiration for vocational education and training is lacking among women themselves, and many of them are contented with their status as components of a complementary work force. Furthermore, women who have left their jobs have seldom had access to vocational education and training during the period of interruption. As a result, even though they have work experience in jobs which require professional knowledge and skills, the social changes and technological progress which have taken place during the period of the interruption often make it difficult for them to reenter the work force.

Though some local governments are carrying out special programs to secure workers for social welfare institutions—for example, training courses for housewives who are qualified as hospital nurses or day nurses—adequate facilities for reeducation and retraining of mature women to help them return to their former occupations are generally lacking.

Vocational Counseling for Women

In the Japanese education system the term of compulsory education is 9 years, consisting of 6 years for primary school and 3 years for junior high school. One of the specified objectives of the junior high school education is to provide the students with the basic knowledge about occupations essential in society and an ability to choose their future courses suitable to their capacities and individuality. However, since 90 percent of these students go on to senior high school, it is said that the emphasis of education is placed on intellectual training to prepare them for the entrance examination, and that vocational counseling necessary for the formation of their attitudes toward their future worklife is not always adequate for both boys and girls.

For senior high school education also it is stipulated that one of its objectives is to let students determine their future courses suitable to their individuality. But in the vocational education conducted there, emphasis tends to be placed not on the individual characteristics and abilities of each girl but on the general characteristics of women who are expected to become housewives, reflecting a social climate in which women are regarded characteristically as staying at home for housework and child care. In fact, in senior high school a subject "general homemaking," intended to impart knowledge and skills necessary for home life and home management, is provided as a compulsory subject both in general courses and in vocational courses. Besides, courses concerning homemaking, such as those relating to domestic economy, food, and child care, are set up as vocational courses. Thus, homemaking education forms part of vocational education for girls. Moreover, it is said that in vocational counseling there is a strong tendency to favor occupations like nutritionist and day nurse, which are applicable to women's role as housewives.

The fact that homemaking education is conducted in junior and senior high school for girls and that

vocational counseling is oriented to traditional women's occupations such as nutritionist and day nurse is attributable to a social climate prevailing in the country where it is believed that a woman's worklife should be a temporary one lasting only until the time of her marriage and that after marriage she should stay at home to be devoted to housework and child care. Moreover, girls are brought up in their homes under a discipline based on such concepts.

Vocational Education and Training for Women Workers

One of the characteristics of Japanese vocational training is that public vocational training and vocational training within industry are considered equally important for the formation of skills. Consequently, various measures have been taken to promote both types of training. In public vocational training the main emphasis is placed on the training of workers to meet skill shortages in industry and on skill formation to enable displaced workers (those who have given up their jobs for new ones or those who have lost their jobs) to find reemployment. For vocational training within industry, guidance and assistance are provided in various ways. Financial assistance is provided, where necessary, for schemes carried out by groups of medium- or small-scale enterprises.

Present Situation of Education

As stated above, under the Japanese education system, compulsory education covers 9 years of primary school (6 years) and lower secondary school (3 years). A child age 6 enters a primary school and goes on to a lower secondary school at age 12 after finishing primary education. When the 3-year lower secondary school course is completed at 15, he or she may proceed to an upper secondary school. There are three kinds of upper secondary schools: those with general courses only, those with vocational courses only, and those combining general and vocational courses. All upper secondary schools are of 3 years duration (in the case of full-time schools), and graduates of an upper secondary school are qualified for admission to entrance examinations of a university or junior college.

In addition, higher technical schools (Koto Senmon Gakko) have been established for the purpose of instructing graduates of lower secondary schools in professional arts and skills for various jobs. A higher technical school, for instance, offers instruction in engineering or the merchant marine service. The time needed for completion of these curriculums is 5 years.

The school attendance rate of Japanese children receiving 9 years of compulsory education is almost 100 percent—the highest in the world. The percentage of girls entering upper secondary has increased year after year, reaching, in 1974, 92 percent of girl graduates from lower secondary schools. The percentage of girls entering universities and junior colleges has risen to about 32 percent of girl graduates from upper secondary schools.

More than 60 percent of the students of upper secondary schools—the nucleus of the latter part of secondary education—attend schools which aim at giving a general education. Because of the rapid change in job specifications, human capacities developed through general courses do not wholly meet the requirements of a highly industrialized society, and the results are inconsistencies between the aptitudes and capacities of students on the one hand, and the contents of school curriculums on the other. This has been pointed out by various authorities.

Public Vocational Training

Vocational training provided by public vocational training centers established by the State, prefectures, municipalities, and the Employment Promotion Projects Corporation is broadly classified into five kinds: basic training, occupational capacity redevelopment training, upgrading training, updating training, and instructor training.

The basic training is provided mainly for new graduates from junior high and senior high schools to develop their abilities as skilled workers by helping them acquire basic knowledge and skills necessary for an occupation. There are different types of training courses such as general courses, in which the training term is comparatively short (6 months for senior high school graduates and 1 year for junior high school graduates), and advanced courses, with a longer training term (1 year for senior high school graduates and 2 years for junior high school graduates). Also, since April 1975 special advanced courses of 2 years have been added for the training of senior high school graduates. The number of girls admitted into the basic training courses in April 1974 was 2,260, accounting for 7.3 percent of all entrants (31,015). The number of training trades is 55 for general courses and 81 for advanced courses. But girl trainees are rather concentrated in a number of trades such as sewing, office work, machine drafting, and cosmetology.

The occupational capacity redevelopment training is designed to help workers redevelop their abilities as skilled workers by letting them acquire knowledge and skills necessary for assuming a new job, taking into consideration their previous occupations. At the end of April 1974, the number of women enrolled in redevelopment courses was 4,819, or 35 percent of the total enrollment (13,813). There are many women trainees in the courses for office work, sewing, housekeeping, tracing, typewriting, and dressmaking.

The upgrading training is given to those who have already completed basic training, to help them acquire more advanced skills and knowledge and thereby

improve their capabilities as skilled workers. The updating training is directed to those who have completed either basic training, upgrading training, or occupational capacity redevelopment training, and is designed to maintain their abilities as skilled workers by letting them supplement skills and knowledge necessary for their occupations. The instructor training aims at the education of vocational training instructors and the improvement of their abilities.

There are 440 centers throughout the country carrying out public vocational training of these types. The total enrollment including both men and women was 48,818 at the end of April 1974.

Authorized Vocational Training

An employer who undertakes vocational training that meets certain standards provided for by the Ministry of Labor Ordinance as to training subjects, training period, facilities, instructors, for example, may apply to the prefectural governor for granting recognition to the training courses. Vocational training thus recognized is called authorized vocational training.

The number of enterprises involved in authorized vocational training is as follows: 397 enterprises where individual employers undertake vocational training for the workers in their employ, and 717 associations of enterprises set up for the purpose of undertaking vocational training. About 120,000 enterprises are organized in these associations for cooperative training. At the end of April 1974, the aggregate number of trainees in basic training, occupational capacity redevelopment training, upgrading training, and updating training was 83,435, of which women numbered 9,981 and accounted for 14 percent of all trainees. A large majority (71 percent) of women were in dressmaking courses, followed by kimono sewing and tailoring courses.

Women's Attitudes Toward Vocational Education and Training

As stated above, in Japan where employment practices based on the seniority system prevail, workers are generally obliged to be contented with unfavorable employment conditions when they reenter the work force. Therefore, it seems very important for women, who are normally obliged to leave employment because of their family responsibilities, to be keenly interested in vocational education and training early in their school days in order to acquire special skills and abilities which will help them when they reenter employment in their older age. However, girls often attend school without definite purposes or only for a vague purpose of attaining general culture, with a result that their higher educational attainment does not always mean higher occupational abilities.

Though the advancement to higher education is the general tendency among girls, it is not usual that they select the school in due consideration of their occupational life after graduation. In 1974, 32 percent of girl graduates from high schools entered schools of higher grade—the same proportion as that of boy graduates. But in the case of girls, many of them chose short-term colleges of 2- or 3-year schooling, and among those who entered 4-year universities, as many as 36 percent were enrolled in humanity courses. Next popular courses were those related to education (20 percent), social science (15 percent), and domestic science (14 percent).

Various institutions called nonregular schools are also established in many parts of the country. Though as many as 780,000 girls are enrolled in these schools, they are mostly concentrated in courses more or less related to hobbies or housekeeping training, such as dressmaking, knitting, handicrafts, cooking, and kimono sewing. There are, perhaps, not many who aim at acquiring occupational knowledge and skills.

Employers' Attitudes Toward Realization of Women's Vocational Capacities

Opportunities for Vocational Training of Women Workers

The results of a survey conducted by the Women's and Minors' Bureau of the Ministry of Labor ("Survey on the Changes in the Employment Situation of Women Workers," 1969) indicate that, in relation to the attitude of employers toward the utilization of women workers' abilities, the percentage of employers who were "trying to make the best use of women workers' abilities by providing them training as well as opportunities for promotion" was only 17 percent. On the other hand, those who were willing to "utilize their abilities as much as possible in light and simple jobs" accounted for 50 percent of all employers covered in the survey.

This attitude of employers is reflected in the education and training in enterprises. According to another study by the Bureau ("Survey on Labor Management for Women Workers," 1971), of all the enterprises which had female new graduates in their employ, 70 percent provided vocational education and training to these young workers, while only 40 percent provided such opportunities to new entrants other than new school graduates, and 45 percent to women workers other than new entrants. This means that more than half of the enterprises do not give any sort of training to women workers other than new school graduates.

The results of the study also indicate that of all enterprises where vocational training was provided to women workers, the percentages were fairly high for those enterprises which undertook induction training for new entrants (83 percent) and those which undertook general training for the development of occupa-

tional skills and knowledge (55 percent). Training or retraining for the unit chief and other higher posts (24 percent) and training for reallocation of personnel (12 percent) were provided in fewer enterprises.

Opportunities for Promotion and Advancement of Women Workers

According to the above-mentioned survey (1971), opportunities for advancement to responsible posts (for which post allowances are paid) were not open to women in 33 percent of the enterprises covered, while in 59 percent such opportunities were open to women. However, in many enterprises there were no women in any responsible posts, and the total number of women holding responsible posts, including unit chief and higher posts, accounted for only 3 percent of all such jobs held by both sexes. Furthermore, of all women in responsible jobs, those in administrative posts, including section chiefs and higher, made up only about 10 percent. Among male workers, more than 40 percent of all those in responsible posts were holders of administrative jobs.

Of all enterprises where several grades are provided for workers who are not in responsible posts, more than half (54 percent) provided to women workers opportunities for advancement to a higher grade, while in 17 percent of the enterprises such opportunities were not open to women. Thus we can see that in a considerable number of enterprises women are not allowed to enjoy the opportunities for advancement and promotion regardless of their abilities. This situation is preventing the realization of their capacities, resulting in a decline in their morale.

Rules and Practices Concerning Compulsory Retirement of Women Workers

In some enterprises there exist unreasonable and discriminatory rules and practices concerning compulsory retirement applied to women workers. These include compulsory retirement because of marriage, pregnancy, and childbirth, and retirement age far lower than that for men. The existence of these rules and practices is a factor preventing the full realization of the capacities of women workers. According to the above-mentioned survey of the Women's and Minors' Bureau (1971), in 8.9 percent of the enterprises covered, women workers were obliged to leave their jobs upon marriage, according to rule or custom established in the enterprise. In 8.8 percent of the enterprises, they were asked to leave their jobs when pregnant or upon childbirth. Also, of all enterprises where different retirement ages were applied to men and women, 11 percent had a retirement age of under 40 for women workers.

In recent years many cases were brought to court by women workers who claimed the unlawfulness of these kinds of discharges based on labor agreements, working regulations, or special agreements in labor contracts. In 1966 a local court decided that "the provision in a labor agreement or a working regulation of compulsory retirement because of marriage to be applied only to women is contrary to the public policy implied in the labor law and as such is generally null and void." With this judgment as a momentum, annulment of discharges for similar reasons, such as marriage to a colleague or in application to an unreasonable retirement age, has since been almost established in judicial precedents, and some of the enterprises involved in these cases have abolished the related rules. However, because of the absence of labor regulations prohibiting such rules, these rules and practices still survive in some of the enterprises.

How To Combine Their Dual Roles in Work and Family Life

With the increase in the number of married women in employment, how to harmonize their worklife with their family responsibilities related to childrearing and housework has become a major problem among women workers. The burden of housework has lessened considerably with the popular use of electrical appliances, readymade clothes, and cooked food, and with the cooperation of other family members such as husbands and children. But the responsibilities related to child care, including feeding babies, are very often performed solely by women. Also, day care centers in communities are not sufficient in number and in the quality of their service to satisfy all working mothers. In these circumstances, many women workers are obliged to leave their jobs against their will. On the other hand, among women workers who have children, there are many who are complaining of physical troubles caused by physical and mental strain owing to their burden of child care.

Situation of Women Workers With Family Responsibilities

According to a survey by the Women's and Minors' Bureau ("Survey on Married Women in Employment," 1966), 78 percent of all married women in employment undertook all family responsibilities, and many of the others were responsible for their housework. Thus, on the whole, it is observed that married women workers are under a heavy burden physically and mentally because of their dual responsibilities at home and at work. Also, the results of the survey indicate that 50 percent of the married women workers had children, and that 21 percent of these had children of preschool age. Reflecting these figures, about half of the married women workers covered answered "education of children and child care" when asked to mention the major difficulties in performing their duties at work and at home. This shows that child care presents the

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biggest problem for working women in harmonizing their worklife with their family life.

Furthermore, of all women workers who were separated from their jobs, the biggest proportion left "because of marriage or child care." Especially in recent years the number of women who left their jobs because of child care has been increasing. Some of those who were obliged to retire in spite of their wish to work were of the opinion that if child care facilities such as day care centers or industrial day nurseries and child care leave had been available they would have been able to continue working. Also, there were many housewives who were willing to go to work if their problems relating to child care could be solved.

The Extent of Assistance Extended to a Working Wife by Other Members of the Family

With the increase in the number of nuclear families (families consisting of husband and wife, or parents or a parent with unmarried children), which now account for more than half of all families, few families with husband and wife both working are in the position to expect help from the husband's or wife's mother. In other words, most of these families have no one but the husband to share family responsibilities with the wife. However, according to the Opinion Survey Concerning Women, conducted by the Prime Minister's Office in 1972, more than half of the working women had husbands who "never helped in domestic work."

In the case of families consisting of parents and children, when either the husband or the wife had to stay at home because of illness of a child, in 93 percent of these families it was the wife who always stayed at home; in most of the remaining families the husband or the wife stayed about equally. When they had to take care of some business at public offices or tax offices, in nearly half of the families it was the wife who was absent from work to go to the office, and in about 30 percent it was the husband. When they had to go to the school of their children, in 62 percent of the families it was the wife who was absent from work to go to the school, while in only 2 percent it was the husband. These results were endorsed by the figures obtained from the answers of the husbands covered in the same survey. The data indicate that almost all of the burdens related to domestic work and child care are shouldered by wives when the couples are both working outside the home.

Situation of Day Care Centers

In the above-mentioned survey by the Prime Minister's Office, about half of the married women workers covered mentioned the inadequacy of child care facilities as a factor causing difficulty to women in their worklife. The number of day care centers (authorized day care centers established and operated according to the provisions of the Child Welfare Law) has been increasing yearly. In October 1974 the number reached 17,324 throughout the country, with a total enrollment of 1.5 million children. However, with the expansion of employment among married women and with the increase in the number of nuclear families, the number of children who need public care in such facilities has rapidly increased, reaching 2.7 million in March of 1974, considerably over the actual enrollment.

The Ministry of Health and Welfare has been implementing annual plans for the extension of the network of day care centers. But since the number of authorized centers is still inadequate, there are a number of nonauthorized centers, including industrial day care centers established by enterprises. Moreover, in recent years the problem has become more complicated because now the demand is not only for an adequate number of centers but for the provision of services according to the working conditions of mothers and the situation of communities. These include demands for the extension of service hours and night service, and provisions of nursing facilities for babies under 1 year old, for sick children, and for school children.

The extension of service hours is being strongly demanded because of the big gap between existing nursing hours (8 hours as a rule) and the aggregate working hours plus hours needed for commuting, which have been gradually extending with the expansion of commuting areas. However, the demand for the extension of service hours should be dealt with adequately in due consideration of the possible effect of long hours on the nursing of children and the problem of providing reasonable working hours for nurses.

Furthermore, many of the mothers who want to go back to work immediately after the completion of maternity leave need nursing facilities for their newborn infants. But such facilities are required to meet special conditions—beyond those required of facilities for children above 3 years of age—because of peculiar problems involved in this kind of service. These include the vulnerability of infants to accidents and diseases and the desirability of close human relations between the infants and the caretaker. For these reasons, only a very limited number of day care centers are in the position to accommodate infants. According to the Social Welfare Statistics (1974), of all children accommodated in authorized day care centers in the whole country, infants under 1 year made up 1.1 percent and those from 1 to 2 years old, 16 percent. In this situation many working mothers have to rely on nonauthorized nurseries and private home nursing where both equipment and nursing service are inadequate.

Also, night service in day care centers is needed for women workers engaged in night work, including hospital nurses. Some of the child care facilities estab-

lished in enterprises such as hospitals are providing this kind of service.

While day care centers as a rule accommodate children of preschool age, child care for children of school age after school hours is not undertaken so systematically as that for smaller children and infants. According to a survey by the Women's and Minors' Bureau (1966), 41 percent of married women workers had no one to take care of their school-age children after school. Sometimes child care for school children is provided by public authorities. For instance, the Ministry of Education undertakes child care for school children as part of its "project for the promotion of children's clubs with their parents absent." Children's Halls, established by the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, and some of the women workers' centers, established and operated by local governments with subsidies from the Ministry of Labor, also provide similar services for school children. Besides, an increasing number of local governments are trying to establish and operate facilities for school children at their own expense. But all these efforts have not been enough to satisfy the need felt by working mothers.

More enterprises are trying to establish child care facilities on the premises of workplaces in order to promote the employment of housewives with small children as a countermeasure to the increasing shortage of labor. Special loans are provided to these enterprises through the Employment Promotion Projects Corporation for the establishment and improvement of such facilities, and the Ministry of Health and Welfare gives guidance to the enterprises to insure adequate service from the standpoint of child welfare. Some local governments also provide subsidies for the establishment and operation of this type of day care center.

As pointed out already, because of employment practices established on the basis of lifelong employment prevalent in Japan, reentrance of older people into the labor force is difficult, and even if they do succeed in finding jobs they are very often subjected to unfavorable working conditions. Therefore, it is necessary, not only from the viewpoint of child welfare but also for the purpose of promoting women workers' welfare, to further improve and promote child care facilities as well as to introduce a child care leave scheme. This would enable women to continue their worklife without interruption, and to successfully perform their dual responsibilities at home and at work

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE—Chapter 4

United States/Japan

This concluding chapter of the joint study on the role and status of women workers in the United States and in Japan sets forth in parallel statements by each country eight areas of mutual concern on the status of women workers. These have emerged as areas in need of continuing attention.

The status of women workers in each country has been carefully studied, and the situation in the two countries has been reviewed and discussed. The eight issues, which are described in the following pages, have been agreed upon by both countries as areas where the respective governments should devote concentrated attention during the next decade. We realize that government efforts alone cannot successfully accomplish the objectives set forth and we therefore urge educational institutions, voluntary organizations, employers, and labor unions to join our continuing efforts to improve the status of women in these areas.

United States

1. *Broadening Occupational Opportunities*

It is possible in the United States for a qualified woman to enter any occupational field, yet about half of all working women are in just 12 occupations. A major thrust in our efforts to improve the utilization of women in the work force will be to provide a climate in the home, the school, and the marketplace that enables a woman to choose, according to her own talents, from a broad range of occupations. In addition to the expansion of opportunity, the development and extension of special training programs will be needed to equip women to enter nontraditional fields.

It is expected that this effort will enhance the economy by making available the full use of women's skills and aptitudes, and that it will improve their career paths, promotional opportunities, and wages.

2. *Improving the Counseling, Education, and Training of Women*

Concerted attention is being given to the adequacy of the counseling of women in regard to the education and training needed to equip them for participation in careers outside the home. Wise counseling demands elimination of the vocational sex stereotyping which has strongly influenced women's educational and vocational choices in the past; it also necessitates a greater awareness by counselors of changing lifetime work patterns.

Current government programs to develop a new system of career education for students, beginning in early school years, will be of special importance to women. Other approaches to facilitate wise career choices include efforts, spearheaded by government and women's organizations, to remove sex stereotyping from vocational literature, from textbooks and other educational materials, and from newspapers, magazines, radio, and TV. For women no longer in school, informational centers which include sound career counseling and special training programs will continue to be encouraged.

3. *Changing Attitudes Toward Working Women*

Despite increasing recognition in recent years of the importance to the economy of the contributions of women workers, including those of married women, there is need to continue the effort to increase the awareness of employers, unions, educators, and women themselves, as to the extent of women's work force participation and the full range of their talents and skills.

Laws on sex discrimination, and particularly affirmative action programs, require employers and unions to make in-depth analyses of the utilization of women. Such laws will, therefore, continue to be a primary method of changing attitudes by creating greater awareness of patterns of discrimination.

Widespread dissemination of information concerning women who have successfully pioneered in nontraditional paths is another approach which will contribute greatly to changing attitudes, particularly those of women, about the possibilities open to them.

4. *Problems of Reentry Into the Work Force*

A great many women look for and find jobs outside the home after a period of absence from the labor force because of family responsibilities. But studies indicate that they frequently accept jobs either at a lower level of skill and responsibility than the ones they held when first leaving school or jobs which offer few promotional opportunities. These women lack confidence and have rusty skills. Moreover, employers' perceptions of the job potential of women reentrants may be far below their actual capabilities.

Efforts to improve the level of jobs of women reentrants require special attention to the employment procedures, including testing, by which employers assess the future potential of job applicants. Laws prohibiting age and sex discrimination are helpful in addressing this issue. In addition, continuing attention will be paid to providing counseling, continuing education, and training programs, particularly for those below the college level.

5. *Problems of Women With Dual Responsibilities*

Women more frequently than men need to make special arrangements for meeting their dual responsibilities in the workplace and at home. Difficulties are greatest where working schedules are rigid and arbitrary. The availability, cost, and quality of child care

Japan

1. *Broadening Occupational Opportunities*

Along with the economic and social development in recent years, the number of women workers has drastically increased, accounting for one-third of all workers. At the same time there has been a gradual increase in the number and variety of industries and occupations in which women are employed. However, women's occupational opportunities and fields of employment are still relatively few in comparison to those of men; on the whole, women are concentrated in occupations of a simple or complementary nature. On the other hand, women professional and technical workers are mostly those who are employed in occupations traditionally considered women's jobs, such as hospital nurses or day nurses.

In order to make better use of women's occupational abilities and also to promote equality between men and women in employment, it is important to increase accessibility of women to skilled jobs in which they are rarely employed, as well as to professional, technical, and managerial occupations hitherto regarded as men's jobs.

2. *Improving the Counseling, Education, and Training of Women*

The increased occupational opportunities for women and their longer worklife expectancy have brought to the fore the importance of occupations in the life of a woman. It is therefore necessary for her to give serious thought to the sort of occupational life she desires.

At present, however, the importance of the problems relating to the occupational life of women is not fully recognized in the present system of school education, vocational guidance, and vocational training.

It is necessary in the future to help women prepare themselves with better awareness and higher professional knowledge and skills, by providing them opportunities for more adequate counseling, vocational education, and training.

3. *Changing Attitudes Toward Working Women*

Social attitudes toward women's employment are among the important factors affecting the expansion of women's occupational fields. In Japan the conception of the division of labor between men and women is very strong among people who believe that men should work outside the home and women should be devoted to housework and childrearing. Employers are inclined to regard women workers as a temporary and complementary labor force, and on this assumption practice employment management suited to such workers. Moreover, women themselves often regard their work career as temporary, lasting only until the time of their marriage.

However, the situation is changing to give more weight to work careers in the whole span of women's lives. It is necessary to strengthen enlightenment and guidance activities in order to awaken more awareness among women themselves and at the same time develop better understanding and recognition of women workers among employers, trade unions, educators, and the general public.

4. *Problems of Reentry Into the Work Force*

In the process of the high growth of the Japanese economy in recent years there has been a drastic rise in employment. Particularly the number of women workers has remarkably increased. Among them are many middle-aged and older women, including those who reentered employment after an interruption because of marriage and childbirth.

However, in Japan, where the seniority wage system and employment practices based on lifelong employment prevail, reentry is difficult for middle-aged and older people, and in particular, reemployment opportunities for mature women tend to be limited to simple and complementary jobs. They are mostly temporary workers subjected to unfavorable working conditions. Therefore, necessary measures to help middle-aged and older women reentering employment will be the research and development of occupations most favorable to these women and the provision of adequate information services and vocational training to equip them with required knowledge and skills.

5. *Problems of Women With Dual Responsibilities*

When a woman worker wants to continue her worklife, an important problem for her will be how to com-

facilities, whether in a center or in a family home, are also major factors in determining whether women with children can hold jobs outside the home.

Despite the expansion of child welfare services in recent years, through funding assistance from Federal, State, and local governments as well as private sources, the need for adequate day care continues to increase, and the shortage can only be overcome by the cooperative efforts of all segments of our economy—private groups, businesses, unions, and government at all levels.

We hope that current research will facilitate an increase in the number and levels of jobs that can be held on a part-time basis and the development of more flexible work schedules for full-time employees. Court cases are underway to resolve the remaining legal questions about maternity and child care leave.

6. *Implementation of Laws Prohibiting Sex Discrimination*

Widespread gains have been made through the passage of legislation prohibiting all forms of sex discrimination in employment, education, and training. The focus now is on strengthening the implementation of these laws. Enforcement agencies alone cannot bring about this strengthening. The spectrum of laws needs to be fully understood by women workers, employers, and unions, and by educators and counselors preparing women for their greater opportunities in the world of work. Coordination of the various enforcement agencies and procedures is underway but needs continued effort if we are to realize the full benefit of the laws enacted. Voluntary agencies play an important role in providing understanding and support for the work of the enforcement agencies.

Still needed to give women equal civil status in line with the pending Equal Rights Amendment to the Federal Constitution and similar amendments in States, are changes in the laws of some States to protect women's property rights, give them equal responsibility to serve on juries, and to assure the married woman the right to determine her domicile.

7. *Reducing the Differentials in Earnings Between Women and Men*

Women on full-time schedules earn only $3 for every $5 earned by men. There are many reasons for this earnings gap. For example, men, on the average, have had more years of worklife experience than women. And even on full-time schedules women work fewer overtime hours per week than men. Furthermore, the occupational and industrial profiles of women workers are of primary importance in determining their lower average earnings level.

The greater continuity of women's labor force attachment today may be expected to lift women's earnings, not only because women will receive the higher wages which usually go with increased job seniority but because a longer worklife expectation will encourage women to train and compete for higher level jobs.

Current efforts to broaden the occupational distribution of women and the rising career aspirations of women are also expected to make significant contributions to raising the earnings level of women. Finally, continued efforts are scheduled to implement laws which prohibit discrimination in all employment aspects which affect earnings.

8. *Increasing Women's Share of Decisionmaking Positions*

Traditionally most women in government or private agencies have held supportive positions rather than major decisionmaking posts commensurate with their education and ability. Women's perception of their rightful place has been captured in the popular phrase "make policy, not coffee," which appears on buttons and posters where women work in political organizations.

Major steps needed, and beginning to be underway, are identification of key elective and appointive offices, gathering of names of women qualified for such positions, and development of strategies and coalitions effective for getting the women elected or appointed. Key elective positions include Senators and Representatives in Congress, State legislators, members of city councils, mayors, some judges, and officers in political parties. Appointed judges, commissioners, and advisory or planning committee members also hold great influence. Policy-level staff positions in government, business, or universities, and offices in unions, trade associations, and professional organizations are also important decisionmaking targets for women.

bine it successfully with her family responsibilities related to housework and childrearing. While the burden of housework has been lessened considerably by the use of electrical appliances, readymade clothes and food, or help provided by husbands and children, child care responsibilities are mostly shouldered by the mothers, who consequently are often obliged to leave their jobs against their will.

Therefore, the provision and improvement of child care facilities on one hand and the promotion of a child care leave scheme on the other will be among the most important measures for helping women workers with dual responsibilities at home and at work. Also, it is hoped for the future that the progressive reduction of working hours and the introduction of flexible working time for all workers will certainly benefit women workers trying to harmonize their family responsibilities with their worklives.

6. *Implementation of Laws Prohibiting Sex Discrimination*

Under the present legislation, special protection for women workers is provided mainly in the Labor Standards Law and the Working Women's Welfare Law, and the principle of sexual equality is laid down in various laws besides the Constitution. Until recently the necessity of such special protection, including maternity protection, was stressed and for that purpose various measures were implemented.

In recent years, however, problems relating to equal opportunity and treatment for both sexes gradually came to be highlighted. Especially since 1975 was designated as International Women's Year, whose theme included elimination of discrimination based on sex, there has been a growing interest in the promotion of equality between men and women in employment and occupations. In the present legislation, however, no special provision is made to insure equal opportunity and treatment for men and women in employment except for wages. In our future study of such provision, an important problem will be how to reconcile it with protective legislation for women workers.

7. *Reducing the Differentials in Earnings Between Women and Men*

The existence of wage differentials between women and men is attributable not only to various factors stemming from the wage system but largely to the difference between the employment fields of women and men. In Japan the main cause for such differentials is found in the fact that women are heavily concentrated in low-paying complementary jobs.

Therefore, in order to reduce differentials, it is essential to encourage women workers to challenge the fixed ideas about the fields of employment for women and to take jobs really suitable to their own abilities and aptitudes. At the same time, it is no less important to enable women workers to enjoy equal opportunities with men as to hiring, placement, training, promotion, retirement, and other aspects of labor management. In this respect, while the Labor Standards Law prohibits sex-based discrimination concerning wages, in regard to other conditions of work it prohibits discrimination based on nationality, creed, or social origin.

It is necessary to abolish the discriminatory employment systems and practices based on sex, because those systems and practices often result in the differentials in earnings. In case women are paid unreasonably less than men for equal work, which is sometimes found out, the labor inspector takes necessary measures.

8. *Increasing Women's Share of Decisionmaking Positions*

In recent years there has been an increasing number of women active not only in workplaces but also in various other fields of social activity. However, the variety of fields in which women are serving, as well as the number of women in leading positions, is still limited. As a rule, women are placed in complementary positions, and those who hold decisionmaking posts are very few. For instance, in the case of primary school teachers, of whom more than half are women, the number of women principals is very small, comprising only a very small percentage of all women teachers in contrast to the case of men where the proportion of principals is considerable. The same situation prevails in trade unions. Even in some unions where a large majority of the members are women, the leadership is held by men. Likewise in political fields, in spite of the fact that women make up more than half of the voters, the number of women active in politics is still as small as it was 20 years ago; women account for only a small proportion of Parliament members.

In view of this situation we must admit that at present decisionmaking rights are almost in the hands of men, even in regard to the matters in which women are profoundly interested. It is hoped that in the future women's social activities will be expanded still more, so that in addition to increased participation there will be more women placed in decisionmaking positions in their respective fields.

CONCLUDING NOTES

It is significant that we completed this 2¼-year joint study during International Women's Year—1975, which promoted equality, development, and peace. Many experts, both women and men, of our respective governments joined the Women's Bureau of the United States and the Women's and Minors' Bureau of Japan in the preparation of this document. We are particularly appreciative of the contributions made and sincere cooperation shown by staffs of the U.S. Department of Labor and the Ministry of Labor of Japan. Certainly their early involvement insures the continuing concern and support toward achieving these goals on behalf of the women workers of our countries.

We have come to realize that in spite of historical, cultural, and social differences of our countries, problems concerning women workers are strikingly similar. After attending the International Women's Year Conference in Mexico in June 1975, where great diversity among countries in the approach to the same subject was disclosed, we feel even more strongly that we in the United States and Japan share similar views in our approach to solve the problems of women workers.

We are in consensus in many thoughts and in many needs. Both countries need fuller participation of women as well as men in all fields for the sound development of the societies. There is a common need to revise conventional attitudes of societies, including the attitudes of women themselves, concerning the role of women. The stereotyped concept of women's and men's responsibilities at home needs to be reexamined, and while the role of women as childbearers is to be respected properly, it should not limit women's capabilities and responsibilities as workers.

We are convinced that this joint study has contributed and will continue to contribute very much to the mutual understanding which is the basis of joint efforts to improve the status and welfare of women workers in our countries.

Appendix A
United States

STATISTICAL DATA ON WOMEN WORKERS—Part 1

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Table 1.—Labor Force Status of the Civilian Noninstitutional Population Aged 16 and Over, by Sex, Selected Years, 1955–1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Year	Civilian noninstitutional population	Civilian labor force	Not in labor force
BOTH SEXES			
1955	109,683	65,023	44,660
1960	116,245	69,628	46,617
1965	126,513	74,456	52,058
1970	136,995	82,715	54,280
1971	139,779	84,112	55,667
1972	143,326	86,542	56,784
1973	145,935	88,713	57,222
1974	148,598	91,011	57,587
WOMEN			
1955	55,574	20,548	37,026
1960	60,583	23,240	38,343
1965	66,731	26,200	40,531
1970	72,734	31,520	41,214
1971	74,043	32,091	41,953
1972	75,868	33,277	42,592
1973	77,191	34,510	42,681
1974	78,508	35,825	42,681
MEN			
1955	52,109	44,475	7,634
1960	55,662	46,388	9,274
1965	59,782	48,255	11,527
1970	64,261	51,195	13,066
1971	65,736	52,021	13,715
1972	67,458	53,265	14,193
1973	68,744	54,203	14,541
1974	70,090	55,186	14,904

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 2.—Civilian Labor Force and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age Group, Selected Years, 1955–1974

Year	Total	16 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
	Labor force (in thousands)							
BOTH SEXES								
1955	65,023	4,092	5,666	15,058	15,400	12,992	8,513	3,305
1960	69,629	4,841	6,702	14,382	16,269	14,852	9,385	3,195
1965	74,453	5,910	8,259	14,233	16,840	15,756	10,350	3,108
1970	82,715	7,246	10,584	17,009	16,431	16,949	11,277	3,221
1971	84,113	7,453	11,265	17,586	16,276	17,026	11,362	3,145
1972	86,542	8,024	12,011	18,725	16,346	16,970	11,361	3,107
1973	88,716	8,463	12,671	20,035	16,416	16,988	11,182	2,963
1974	91,011	8,812	13,084	21,207	16,663	17,137	11,187	2,921
	Labor force participation rates							
1955	59.3	48.9	62.7	64.8	38.9	69.7	59.5	24.1
1960	59.4	47.5	65.2	65.4	69.4	72.1	60.9	20.8
1965	58.9	45.7	66.4	66.4	70.7	72.5	61.9	17.8
1970	60.4	49.9	69.2	69.7	73.1	73.5	61.8	17.0
1971	60.2	49.7	69.3	69.8	73.2	73.3	61.4	16.3
1972	60.4	52.0	70.7	70.8	73.3	72.7	60.1	15.6
1973	60.8	53.7	72.6	72.2	73.9	72.5	58.5	14.6
1974	60.8	54.9	74.0	73.4	74.6	72.7	58.0	14.1

See footnote at end of table.

Table 2.—Civilian Labor Force and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Sex and Age Group, Selected Years, 1955–1974—Continued

Year	Total	16 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
	Labor force (in thousands)							
WOMEN								
1955	20,548	1,723	2,445	4,252	4,805	4,154	2,391	779
1960	23,239	2,054	2,579	4,131	5,302	5,278	2,986	908
1965	26,199	2,513	3,365	4,330	5,720	5,711	3,587	976
1970	31,520	3,240	4,874	5,698	5,967	6,531	4,153	1,056
1971	32,091	3,292	5,071	5,933	5,954	6,569	4,216	1,057
1972	33,277	3,567	5,316	6,518	6,021	6,548	4,223	1,085
1973	34,512	3,798	5,591	7,186	6,146	6,557	4,179	1,055
1974	35,825	3,989	5,832	7,814	6,351	6,686	4,157	996
	Labor force participation rates							
1955	35.7	39.7	45.9	34.9	41.6	43.8	32.5	10.6
1960	37.7	39.3	46.1	36.0	43.4	49.8	37.2	10.8
1965	39.3	38.0	49.9	38.5	46.1	50.9	41.1	10.0
1970	43.3	44.0	57.7	45.0	51.1	54.4	43.0	9.7
1971	43.3	43.5	57.7	45.5	51.6	54.3	42.9	9.5
1972	43.9	45.9	59.0	47.6	52.0	53.9	42.1	9.3
1973	44.7	47.8	61.1	50.1	53.3	53.7	41.1	8.9
1974	45.6	49.2	63.2	52.4	54.7	54.6	40.7	8.2
	Labor force (in thousands)							
MEN								
1955	44,475	2,369	3,221	10,806	10,595	8,838	6,122	2,526
1960	46,390	2,787	4,123	10,251	10,967	9,574	6,399	2,287
1965	48,254	3,397	4,894	9,903	11,120	10,045	6,763	2,132
1970	51,195	4,006	5,710	11,311	10,464	10,418	7,124	2,165
1971	52,022	4,161	6,194	11,653	10,322	10,457	7,146	2,088
1972	53,265	4,457	6,695	12,207	10,325	10,422	7,138	2,022
1973	54,204	4,665	7,080	12,849	10,270	10,431	7,003	1,908
1974	55,186	4,823	7,252	13,393	10,312	10,451	7,030	1,925
	Labor force participation rates							
1955	85.3	58.9	86.8	97.6	98.1	96.5	87.9	39.6
1960	83.3	56.1	88.1	97.5	97.7	95.7	86.8	33.1
1965	80.7	53.8	85.8	97.3	97.3	95.6	84.6	27.9
1970	79.7	56.1	83.3	96.4	96.9	94.2	83.0	26.8
1971	79.1	56.1	83.0	96.0	96.5	93.9	82.2	25.5
1972	79.0	58.1	83.9	95.7	96.4	93.2	80.5	24.4
1973	78.8	59.8	85.3	95.7	96.2	93.0	78.3	22.8
1974	78.7	60.7	86.0	95.9	96.0	92.2	77.4	22.4

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 3.—Change in Composition of the Labor Force and Population, by Marital Status and Sex, 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1974

Marital status and sex	Numbers (in thousands)					Percent distribution				
	Total	1950	1960	1970	1974	Total	1950	1960	1970	1974
Labor force										
Total, both sexes	305,356	62,221	69,590	82,854	90,691					
Women, total	106,863	17,795	22,515	31,233	35,320	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Widowed, divorced, or separated	21,099	3,624	4,861	5,891	6,723	19.7	20.4	21.6	18.9	19.0
Never married	26,217	5,621	5,401	6,965	8,230	24.5	31.6	24.0	22.3	23.3
Married, husband present	59,547	8,550	12,253	18,377	20,367	55.7	48.0	54.4	58.8	57.7
Men, total	198,493	44,426	47,075	51,621	55,371	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Widowed, divorced, or separated	12,315	2,616	2,845	2,938	3,916	6.2	5.9	6.0	5.7	7.1
Never married	38,653	8,898	8,473	9,545	11,737	19.5	20.0	18.0	18.5	21.2
Married, wife present	147,525	32,912	35,757	39,138	39,718	74.3	74.1	76.0	75.8	71.7
Population										
Total, both sexes	524,153	110,921	124,880	139,454	148,898					
Women, total	272,634	56,635	64,607	73,261	78,131	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Widowed, divorced, or separated	53,217	9,584	12,150	15,065	16,418	19.5	16.9	18.8	20.6	21.0
Never married	50,908	11,126	12,252	13,141	14,389	18.7	19.6	19.0	17.9	18.4
Married, husband present	168,509	35,925	40,205	45,055	47,324	61.8	63.4	62.2	61.5	60.6
Men, total	251,519	54,286	60,273	66,193	70,767	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Widowed, divorced, or separated	20,301	4,149	4,794	5,416	5,942	8.1	7.6	8.0	8.2	8.4
Never married	62,709	14,212	15,274	15,722	17,501	24.9	26.2	25.3	23.8	24.7
Married, wife present	168,509	35,925	40,205	45,055	47,324	67.0	66.2	66.7	68.1	66.9

Note.—Data relate to March of each year. Data for 1950 and 1960 are for women and men 14 years of age and over; data for 1970 and 1974 are for women and men 16 years of age and over.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 4.—Number of Women in the Labor Force and Labor Force Participation Rates, by Marital Status, March of Selected Years

Year	Total	Never married	Married, spouse present	Widowed, divorced, or separated
LABOR FORCE (thousands)				
1962	23,978	5,481	13,485	5,012
1965	25,952	5,912	14,708	5,332
1970	31,233	6,965	18,377	5,891
1971	31,681	7,187	18,530	5,964
1972	32,939	7,477	19,249	6,213
1973	33,904	7,739	19,821	6,344
1974	35,320	8,230	20,367	6,723
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES				
1962	35.7	41.7	32.7	39.1
1965	36.7	40.5	34.7	38.9
1970	42.6	53.0	40.8	39.1
1971	42.5	52.7	40.8	38.5
1972[1]	43.6	54.9	41.5	40.1
1973[1]	44.1	55.8	42.2	39.6
1974[1]	45.2	57.2	43.0	40.9

[1] The percent of the population in the labor force is not strictly comparable with the rates for prior years because of the exclusion of the institutional population beginning in 1972.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 4a.—Women Not in Labor Force Who Want a Job Now, by Age and Reason, 1967, 1970, and 1974

Reasons for not looking work	Total			16 to 19 years [1]		20 to 24 years [1]		25 to 59 years [1]		60 years and over [1]	
	1967	1970	1974	1970	1974	1970	1974	1970	1974	1970	1974
	NUMBER (in thousands)										
Total not in labor force	40,608	41,21[illegible]	42,683	4,130	4,124	3,580	3,420	20,812	20,733	12,690	14,406
Do not want a job now	37,220	38,535	39,595	3,524	3,435	3,182	2,941	19,341	19,027	12,489	14,189
Want job now, total	3,388	2,675	3,088	606	689	398	479	1,471	1,706	201	217
In school	550	511	579	406	443	72	84	32	52	2	.....
Ill health or disability	436	281	378	9	18	26	33	191	258	55	70
Home responsibilities	1,303	906	1,017	60	71	167	193	658	738	23	16
Think cannot get job	510	417	459	55	67	52	68	235	251	74	74
All other reasons	589	560	655	76	90	81	101	355	407	47	57
	PERCENT DISTRIBUTION										
Want job now, total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In school	16.2	19.1	18.8	67.0	64.3	18.1	17.5	2.2	3.0	1.0	.....
Ill health or disability	12.9	10.5	12.2	1.5	2.6	6.5	6.9	13.0	15.1	27.4	32.3
Home responsibilities	38.5	33.9	32.9	9.9	10.3	42.0	40.3	44.7	43.3	11.4	7.4
Think cannot get job	15.1	15.6	14.9	9.1	9.7	13.1	14.2	16.0	14.7	36.8	34.1
All other reasons	17.4	20.9	21.2	12.5	13.1	20.4	21.1	24.1	23.9	23.4	26.3

[1] Data for 1967 not available by age.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 4b.—Reasons of Women for Nonparticipation in Labor Force, by Job Desire and Age, 1974 Annual Average

[Numbers in thousands]

Job desire and reasons	Total	Age			
		16 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 59 years	60 years and over
Total women not in labor force	42,683	4,124	3,420	20,733	14,406
Do not want job now, total	39,595	3,434	2,941	19,027	14,189
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In school	7.6	64.7	19.6	1.1	0.1
Ill health or disability	5.7	.9	2.2	5.3	7.9
Home responsibilities	80.1	20.6	73.0	90.1	82.7
Think cannot get job	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
All other reasons [1]	6.6	13.9	5.2	3.5	9.3
Want job now, total	3,088	689	479	1,706	217
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
In school	18.8	64.3	17.5	3.0	.....
Ill health or disability	12.2	2.6	6.9	15.1	32.3
Home responsibilities	32.9	10.3	40.3	43.3	7.4
Think cannot get job	14.9	9.7	14.2	14.7	34.1
All other reasons [1]	21.2	13.1	21.1	23.9	26.3

[1] Includes retirement.

Note.—Individual items may not add to totals because of rounding.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 5.—Married Women, Husband Present, in the Labor Force, by Age and by Presence and Age of Children, March 1964 and 1974

Presence and age of children	1974				1964			
	Total wives, 16 years and over	Under 35 years	35 to 44 years	45 years and over	Total wives, 16 years and over	Under 35 years	35 to 44 years	45 years and over
	Labor force participation rates [1]							
Total	43.0	48.2	50.1	35.5	34.4	32.3	39.4	33.1
With no children under 18 years	43.0	74.4	60.0	33.1	37.8	62.5	57.1	31.1
With children under 18 years	43.1	39.5	48.4	44.0	32.0	26.2	36.2	39.5
With children 6 to 17 years only	51.2	56.7	53.4	44.8	43.0	45.0	44.1	40.4
With children under 6 years	34.4	34.9	32.2	24.1	22.7	22.7	22.3	28.3
	Number (in thousands)							
Total	20,367	8,333	4,664	7,370	14,461	4,579	4,093	5,789
With no children under 18 years	9,365	3,218	808	5,339	6,545	1,477	924	4,144
With children under 18 years	11,002	5,115	3,856	2,031	7,916	3,102	3,169	1,645
With children 6 to 17 years only	6,792	1,545	3,256	1,991	4,866	849	2,455	1,562
With children under 6 years	4,210	3,570	600	40	3,050	2,253	714	83

[1] Labor force as percent of population.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 6.—Labor Force Status of Married and Formerly Married Women, by Race and by Presence and Age of Children, March 1974

Items	All women					Negro and other races [1]				
		Married					Married			
	Total	Husband present	Husband absent	Divorced	Widowed	Total	Husband present	Husband absent	Divorced	Widowed
Population:										
Number (in thousands)	63,742	47,324	2,975	3,629	9,814	7,032	4,027	1,139	549	1,317
Median age	45.7	41.9	36.5	42.0	69.6	42.8	38.9	36.7	41.8	65.0
Labor force:										
Number (in thousands)	27,090	20,367	1,642	2,647	2,434	3,486	2,100	617	394	375
Median age	40.8	39.0	35.6	40.3	58.3	39.1	36.8	35.9	41.2	54.8
Labor force participation rate: [2]										
Total	42.5	43.0	55.2	72.9	24.6	49.6	52.1	54.2	71.8	28.5
No children under 18 years	39.7	43.0	57.3	71.1	22.4	42.3	45.6	57.8	71.7	24.9
With children 6 to 17 years only	53.8	51.2	60.6	79.9	54.3	60.5	61.0	54.9	77.7	47.3
With children under 6 years	36.6	34.4	47.5	66.2	36.3	51.9	52.4	48.9	59.8	(3)

[1] Negro and other races refers to all races other than white. Negroes constituted 89 percent of persons other than white in the United States in 1970; Orientals, 8 percent; and American Indians, 3 percent. Spanish-origin persons are generally included in the white population—about 93 percent of the Spanish-origin population is white.

[2] Labor force as percent of population.

[3] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 6a.—Labor Force Status and Labor Force Participation Rates [1] of Married Women, Husband Present, by Presence and Age of Children, 1948–1974

Date	Total	No children under 18 years	Children 6 to 17 years	Children under 6 years: Total	Children under 6 years: No children 6 to 17 years	Children under 6 years: Children 6 to 17 years
	Number in labor force (thousands)					
April 1948	7,553	4,400	1,927	1,226	594	632
April 1949	7,959	4,544	2,130	1,285	654	631
March 1950	8,550	4,946	2,205	1,399	748	651
April 1951	9,086	5,016	2,400	1,670	886	784
April 1952	9,222	5,042	2,492	1,688	916	772
April 1953	9,763	5,130	2,749	1,884	1,047	837
April 1954	9,923	5,096	3,019	1,808	883	925
April 1955	10,423	5,227	3,183	2,012	927	1,086
March 1956	11,126	5,694	3,384	2,048	971	1,077
March 1957	11,529	5,805	3,517	2,208	961	1,247
March 1958	11,826	5,713	3,714	2,399	1,122	1,277
March 1959	12,205	5,679	4,055	2,471	1,118	1,353
March 1960	12,253	5,692	4,087	2,474	1,123	1,351
March 1961	13,266	6,186	4,419	2,661	1,178	1,483
March 1962	13,485	6,156	4,445	2,884	1,282	1,602
March 1963	14,061	6,366	4,689	3,006	1,346	1,660
March 1964	14,461	6,545	4,866	3,050	1,408	1,642
March 1965	14,708	6,755	4,836	3,117	1,404	1,709
March 1966	15,178	7,043	4,949	3,186	1,431	1,755
March 1967	15,908	7,158	5,269	3,480	1,629	1,851
March 1968	16,821	7,564	5,693	3,546	1,641	1,923
March 1969	17,595	7,853	6,146	3,596	1,756	1,840
March 1970	18,377	8,174	6,289	3,914	1,874	2,040
March 1971	18,530	8,432	6,424	3,674	1,862	1,812
March 1972	19,249	8,797	6,706	3,746	2,014	1,732
March 1973	19,821	9,107	6,658	4,056	2,268	1,788
March 1974	20,367	9,365	6,792	4,210	2,343	1,867
	Labor force participation rate					
April 1948	22.0	28.4	26.0	10.8	9.2	12.7
April 1949	22.5	28.7	27.3	11.0	10.0	12.2
March 1950	23.8	30.3	28.3	11.9	11.2	12.6
April 1951	25.2	31.0	30.3	14.0	13.6	14.6
April 1952	25.3	30.9	31.1	13.9	13.7	14.1
April 1953	26.3	31.2	32.2	15.5	15.8	15.2
April 1954	26.6	31.6	33.2	14.9	14.3	15.5
April 1955	27.7	32.7	34.7	16.2	15.1	17.3
March 1956	29.0	35.3	36.4	15.9	15.6	16.1
March 1957	29.6	35.6	36.6	17.0	15.9	17.9
March 1958	30.2	35.4	37.6	18.2	18.4	18.1
March 1959	30.9	35.2	39.8	18.7	18.3	19.0
March 1960	30.5	34.7	39.0	18.6	18.2	18.9
March 1961	32.7	37.3	41.7	20.0	19.6	20.3
March 1962	32.7	36.1	41.8	21.3	21.1	21.5
March 1963	33.7	37.4	41.5	22.5	22.4	22.5
March 1964	34.4	37.8	43.0	22.7	23.6	21.9
March 1965	34.7	38.3	42.7	23.3	23.8	22.8
March 1966	35.4	38.4	43.7	24.2	24.0	24.3
March 1967	36.8	38.9	45.0	26.5	26.9	26.2
March 1968	38.3	40.1	46.9	27.6	27.8	27.4
March 1969	39.6	41.0	48.6	28.5	29.3	27.8
March 1970	40.8	42.2	49.2	30.3	30.2	30.5
March 1971	40.8	42.1	49.4	29.6	30.0	29.3
March 1972	41.5	42.7	50.2	30.1	31.1	29.1
March 1973	42.2	42.8	50.1	32.7	34.3	30.9
March 1974	43.0	43.0	51.2	34.4	35.7	32.9

[1] Percent of civilian noninstitutional population in the labor force.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

TABLE 7.—WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE, BY AGE, RACE, AND MARITAL STATUS, MARCH 1974

Characteristics	All women, 16 years and over						Negro and other races, 16 years and over					
			Married						Married			
	Total	Never married	Husband present	Husband absent	Divorced	Widowed	Total	Never married	Husband present	Husband absent	Divorced	Widowed
Population (in thousands)	78,131	14,389	47,324	2,975	3,629	9,814	9,357	2,325	4,027	1,139	549	1,317
In labor force (in thousands)	35,320	8,230	20,367	1,642	2,647	2,434	4,512	1,026	2,100	616	394	375
As percent of population	45.2	57.2	43.0	55.2	72.9	24.8	48.2	44.1	52.1	54.0	71.8	28.5
Median age of labor force	35.9	21.9	39.0	35.7	40.3	58.3	34.9	23.0	36.8	35.9	41.2	54.8
	Labor force participation rate [1]											
AGE												
16 to 19 years	45.4	45.6	44.3	42.9	(2)	(2)	29.7	27.5	45.9	(2)	.....	(2)
20 to 24 years	61.8	71.5	54.0	59.1	79.5	(2)	56.2	57.2	52.4	63.2	(2)	(2)
25 to 34 years	52.6	81.8	46.1	59.7	77.6	53.4	60.4	64.6	60.0	54.8	71.8	(2)
35 to 44 years	54.0	72.5	50.1	61.7	81.7	50.5	61.3	61.7	61.5	56.6	76.9	46.2
45 to 54 years	54.5	77.7	49.6	60.3	81.4	64.3	56.0	67.1	49.7	55.3	77.0	60.1
55 to 64 years	42.0	64.3	34.9	52.1	67.8	51.8	46.7	(2)	45.8	50.0	(2)	43.5
65 years and over	8.2	14.6	6.7	4.1	17.2	8.2	9.4	(2)	12.0	(2)	(2)	7.7

[1] Labor force as percent of population.

[2] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table 8.—Employment Status of the Population,[1] by Marital Status and Sex, 1947–1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Marital status and date	Women						Men					
		Labor force						Labor force				
		Total			Unemployed			Total			Unemployed	
	Population	Number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force	Population	Number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force
SINGLE												
April 1947	12,078	6,181	51.2	5,991	190	3.1	14,760	9,375	63.5	8,500	849	9.1
April 1948	11,623	5,943	51.1	5,697	246	4.1	14,734	9,440	64.1	8,699	(2)	.....
April 1949	11,174	5,682	50.9	5,395	287	5.1	13,952	8,957	64.2	8,048	863	9.6
March 1950	11,126	5,621	50.5	5,272	349	6.2	14,212	8,898	62.6	7,638	1,188	13.4
April 1951	10,946	5,430	49.6	5,228	202	3.7	12,984	8,036	61.9	7,550	427	5.3
April 1952	11,068	5,532	50.0	5,360	168	3.0	12,808	7,836	60.9	7,254	444	5.7
April 1953	10,774	5,223	48.5	5,089	130	2.5	13,000	7,825	60.2	7,347	390	5.0
April 1954	11,043	5,412	49.0	5,095	317	5.9	13,004	7,924	60.9	7,099	697	8.8
April 1955	10,962	5,087	46.4	4,865	222	4.4	13,522	8,276	61.2	7,495	653	7.9
March 1956	11,126	5,167	46.4	4,919	248	4.8	13,516	8,086	59.8	7,400	625	7.7
March 1957	11,487	5,378	46.8	5,139	239	4.4	13,754	7,958	57.9	7,166	716	9.0
March 1958	11,822	5,365	45.4	5,078	287	5.3	14,331	8,174	57.0	6,959	1,122	13.7
March 1959	11,884	5,162	43.4	4,832	330	6.4	14,768	8,416	57.0	7,263	1,083	12.9
March 1960	12,252	5,401	44.1	5,079	322	6.0	15,274	8,473	55.5	7,327	1,067	12.6
March 1961	12,764	5,663	44.4	5,235	428	7.6	15,886	8,837	55.6	7,533	1,246	14.1
March 1962	13,134	5,481	41.7	5,096	385	7.0	15,708	8,121	51.7	7,134	922	11.4
March 1963	13,692	5,614	41.0	5,218	396	7.1	16,361	8,267	50.5	7,059	1,124	13.6
March 1964	14,132	5,781	40.9	5,366	415	7.2	16,968	8,617	50.8	7,428	1,085	12.6
March 1965	14,607	5,912	40.5	5,491	421	7.1	17,338	8,719	50.3	7,765	898	10.3
March 1966	14,981	6,106	40.8	5,729	377	6.2	17,684	8,781	49.7	7,914	799	9.1
March 1967	15,311	6,323	41.3	5,958	365	5.8	17,754	9,001	50.7	8,151	706	7.8
March 1967[3]	11,664	5,915	50.7	5,566	349	5.9	13,987	8,350	59.7	7,553	654	7.8
March 1968	12,381	6,357	51.3	5,944	413	6.5	14,596	8,695	59.6	7,816	707	8.1
March 1969	12,689	6,501	51.2	6,093	408	6.3	14,890	8,797	59.1	8,000	675	7.7
March 1970	13,141	6,965	53.0	6,473	492	7.1	15,722	9,545	60.7	8,552	969	9.1
March 1971	13,632	7,187	52.7	6,488	699	9.7	16,547	9,963	60.2	8,508	1,310	13.1
March 1972[4]	13,610	7,477	54.9	6,740	737	9.9	16,573	10,693	64.5	9,068	1,476	13.8
March 1973	13,879	7,739	55.8	7,040	699	9.0	16,791	11,102	66.1	9,808	1,205	10.9
March 1974	14,389	8,230	57.2	7,480	750	9.1	17,501	11,737	67.1	10,350	1,281	10.9

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 8.—Employment Status of the Popualtion,[1] by Marital Status and Sex, 1947–1974—Continued

[Numbers in thousands]

Marital status and date	Women						Men					
		Labor force						Labor force				
		Total			Unemployed			Total			Unemployed	
	Population	Number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force	Population	Number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force
MARRIED, SPOUSE PRESENT												
April 1947	33,458	6,676	20.0	6,502	174	2.6	33,389	30,927	92.6	29,865	837	2.7
April 1948	34,289	7,553	22.0	7,369	184	2.4	34,289	31,713	92.5	30,563	(2)	.....
April 1949	35,323	7,959	22.5	7,637	322	4.0	35,323	32,559	92.2	31,101	1,115	3.4
March 1950	35,925	8,550	23.8	8,038	512	6.0	35,925	32,912	91.6	30,938	1,503	4.6
April 1951	35,998	9,086	25.2	8,750	336	3.7	35,998	32,998	91.7	31,968	480	1.5
April 1952	36,510	9,222	25.3	8,946	266	2.9	36,510	33,482	91.7	32,222	464	1.4
April 1953	37,106	9,763	26.3	9,525	236	2.4	37,106	33,980	91.5	32,540	564	1.7
April 1954	37,346	9,923	26.6	9,388	535	5.4	37,346	34,158	91.5	32,139	1,328	3.9
April 1955	37,570	10,423	27.7	10,021	402	3.9	37,570	34,064	90.7	32,207	1,171	3.4
March 1956	38,306	11,126	29.0	10,676	450	4.0	38,306	34,855	91.0	33,046	1,016	2.9
March 1957	38,940	11,529	29.6	11,036	493	4.3	38,940	35,280	90.6	33,536	1,024	2.9
March 1958	39,182	11,826	30.2	10,993	833	7.0	39,182	35,327	90.2	32,283	2,267	6.4
March 1959	39,529	12,205	30.9	11,516	689	5.6	39,529	35,437	89.6	32,928	1,583	4.5
March 1960	40,205	12,253	30.5	11,587	666	5.4	40,205	35,757	88.9	33,179	1,564	4.4
March 1961	40,524	13,266	32.7	12,337	929	7.0	40,524	36,201	89.3	33,080	2,137	5.9
March 1962	41,218	13,485	32.7	12,716	769	5.7	41,218	36,396	88.3	33,883	1,605	4.4
March 1963	41,705	14,061	33.7	13,303	758	5.4	41,705	36,740	88.1	34,305	1,567	4.3
March 1964	42,045	14,461	34.4	13,626	835	5.8	42,045	36,898	87.8	34,667	1,310	3.6
March 1965	42,367	14,708	34.7	13,959	749	5.1	42,367	37,140	87.7	35,185	1,088	2.9
March 1966	42,826	15,178	35.4	14,623	555	3.7	42,826	37,346	87.2	35,685	888	2.4
March 1967	43,225	15,908	36.8	15,189	719	4.5	43,225	37,596	87.0	35,964	792	2.1
March 1967[3]	43,225	15,908	36.8	15,189	719	4.5	43,225	37,588	87.0	35,963	790	2.1
March 1968	43,947	16,821	38.3	16,199	622	3.7	43,947	38,225	87.0	36,552	787	2.1
March 1969	44,440	17,595	39.6	16,947	648	3.7	44,440	38,623	86.9	37,065	662	1.7
March 1970	45,055	18,377	40.8	17,497	880	4.8	45,055	39,138	86.9	37,103	1,020	2.6
March 1971	45,443	18,530	40.8	17,445	1,085	5.9	45,443	39,058	85.9	36,620	1,441	3.7
March 1972	46,400	19,249	41.5	18,217	1,032	5.4	46,400	39,654	85.5	37,311	1,326	3.3
March 1973	46,939	19,821	42.2	18,908	913	4.6	46,939	39,782	84.8	37,822	1,110	2.8
March 1974	47,324	20,367	43.0	19,406	961	4.7	47,324	39,718	83.9	37,621	1,125	2.8

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 8.—Employment Status of the Population,[1] by Marital Status and Sex, 1947–1974—Continued

[Numbers in thousands]

Marital status and date	Women						Men					
		Labor force						Labor force				
		Total			Unemployed			Total			Unemployed	
	Population	Number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force	Population	Number	Percent of population	Employed	Number	Percent of labor force
WIDOWED, DIVORCED, SEPARATED												
April 1947	9,270	3,466	37.4	3,309	157	4.5	4,201	2,760	65.7	2,546	211	7.6
April 1948	9,452	3,659	38.7	3,463	196	5.4	4,204	2,689	64.0	2,589	[2]	.....
April 1949	9,505	3,526	37.1	3,324	202	5.7	4,174	2,545	61.0	2,314	227	8.9
March 1950	9,584	3,624	37.8	3,364	260	7.2	4,149	2,616	63.1	2,301	311	11.9
April 1951	10,410	4,086	39.2	3,910	176	4.3	4,438	2,754	62.1	2,616	121	4.4
April 1952	10,456	4,058	38.8	3,928	130	3.2	4,186	2,602	62.2	2,422	140	5.4
April 1953	11,060	4,319	39.0	4,205	112	2.6	4,678	3,060	65.4	2,870	150	4.9
April 1954	11,153	4,391	39.4	4,120	269	6.1	4,947	3,081	62.3	2,755	318	10.3
April 1955	11,718	4,643	39.6	4,398	245	5.3	4,902	2,976	60.7	2,699	269	9.0
March 1956	11,543	4,549	39.4	4,300	249	5.5	4,922	3,001	61.0	2,737	246	8.2
March 1957	11,436	4,617	40.4	4,417	200	4.3	4,776	2,795	58.5	2,571	211	7.5
March 1958	11,780	4,810	40.8	4,474	336	7.0	4,949	2,903	58.7	2,524	354	12.2
March 1959	12,148	5,009	41.2	4,637	372	7.4	4,961	2,967	59.8	2,651	305	10.3
March 1960	12,150	4,861	40.0	4,553	308	6.3	4,794	2,845	59.3	2,542	279	9.8
March 1961	12,559	5,270	42.0	4,841	429	8.1	4,828	2,829	58.6	2,490	326	11.5
March 1962	12,814	5,012	39.1	4,681	331	6.6	5,203	2,989	57.4	2,629	355	11.9
March 1963	12,995	5,000	38.5	4,665	335	6.7	5,174	2,932	56.7	2,598	322	11.0
March 1964	13,326	5,157	38.7	4,794	363	7.0	5,205	2,933	56.3	2,635	286	9.8
March 1965	13,717	5,332	38.9	5,044	288	5.4	5,438	3,032	55.8	2,724	297	9.8
March 1966	14,021	5,536	39.5	5,278	258	4.7	5,278	2,959	56.1	2,794	160	5.4
March 1967	14,551	5,724	39.3	5,473	251	4.4	5,525	3,027	54.8	2,819	190	6.3
March 1967[3]	14,521	5,722	39.4	5,471	251	4.4	5,512	3,025	54.9	2,817	190	6.3
March 1968	14,351	5,600	39.0	5,325	275	4.9	5,278	2,816	53.4	2,682	124	4.4
March 1969	14,791	5,802	39.2	5,573	229	3.9	5,501	2,977	54.1	2,842	124	4.2
March 1970	15,065	5,891	39.1	5,611	280	4.8	5,416	2,938	54.2	2,724	192	6.5
March 1971	15,505	5,964	38.5	5,582	382	6.4	5,688	3,129	55.0	2,850	257	8.2
March 1972[4]	15,496	6,213	40.1	5,838	375	6.0	5,299	3,322	62.7	3,023	274	8.2
March 1973	16,032	6,344	39.6	5,977	367	5.8	5,620	3,515	62.5	3,265	210	6.0
March 1974	16,418	6,723	40.9	6,313	410	6.1	5,942	3,916	65.9	3,647	229	5.8

[1] Data relate to the civilian population (including institutional) 14 years and over until 1967, 16 and over beginning 1967; beginning 1972, data relate to the civilian noninstitutional population. Male members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post are included in the male population and labor force figures.

[2] Not available.

[3] See footnote 1 concerning raising the lower age limit.

[4] The percent of the population in the labor force is not strictly comparable with the rates for prior years because of the exclusion of the institutional population beginning 1972.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 9.—Labor Force Participation Rates [1] of Women in the Civilian Noninstitutional Population, Annual Averages, 1950, 1955, 1960, 1965, 1970, and 1974

Date of birth	1950 [2]		1955		1960		1965		1970		1974	
	Age	Rate	Age	Rate	Age	Rate	Age	Rate	Age	Rate	Age	Rate
1950–54											20–24	62.7
1946–50									20–24	57.8	25–29	53.9
1941–45							20–24	50.0	25–29	45.2	30–34	49.0
1936–40					20–24	46.2	25–29	38.9	30–34	44.7	35–39	53.7
1931–35			20–24	46.0	25–29	35.7	30–34	38.2	35–39	49.2	40–44	54.8
1926–30	20–24	46.1	25–29	35.3	30–34	36.3	35–39	43.6	40–44	52.9	45–49	54.9
1916–25	25–34	34.0	30–34	34.7	35–39	40.8	40–44	48.5	45–49	55.0	50–54	54.0
			35–39	39.2	40–44	46.8	45–49	51.7	50–54	53.8	55–59	47.7
1906–15	35–44	39.1	40–44	44.1	45–49	50.7	50–54	50.1	55–59	49.0	60–64	33.6
			45–49	45.9	50–54	48.8	55–59	47.1	60–64	36.1	65–69	14.5
1896–1905	45–54	37.9	50–54	41.5	55–59	42.2	60–64	34.0	65–69	17.3	70 and over	4.8
			55–59	35.6	60–64	31.4	65–69	17.4	70 and over	5.7		
			60–64	29.0	65–69	17.6	70 and over	6.1				
Before 1895	55 and over	18.9	65–69	17.8	70 and over	6.8						
			70 and over	6.4								

[1] Labor force as a percent of population.
[2] Data not available for 5-year age groups.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 10.—Number of Women and Men at Work, by Full- and Part-Time Status, Selected Years

[Numbers in thousands]

Year	Women			Men		
	Total at work	Full time	Part time	Total at work	Full time	Part time
1956	19,652	14,111	5,541	42,166	36,529	5,637
1960	20,973	14,321	6,650	42,554	35,875	6,679
1965	23,701	16,188	7,514	44,953	38,449	6,504
1970	27,695	17,244	10,451	46,317	37,471	8,845
1971	27,811	18,021	9,792	46,592	39,036	7,555
1972	29,002	19,023	9,978	47,997	40,372	7,625
1973	30,242	19,640	10,601	49,241	41,333	7,909
1974	31,075	19,981	11,093	49,538	41,327	8,211

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 11.—Unemployed Women 20 Years Old and Over Seeking Work, by Full- and Part-Time Status, 1963–1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Year	Total unemployed		
	Number	Percent looking for full-time jobs	Percent looking for part-time jobs
1963	1,217	84.7	15.3
1964	1,195	83.3	16.7
1965	1,056	83.0	17.0
1966	919	80.5	19.5
1967	1,078	77.9	22.1
1968	985	77.7	22.3
1969	1,015	78.9	21.1
1970	1,347	79.9	20.1
1971	1,650	79.6	20.4
1972	1,611	79.5	20.5
1973	1,486	78.4	21.6
1974	1,748	78.9	21.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 12.—Employed Women, by Age and Full- or Part-time Status, 1974 Annual Average

[Numbers in thousands]

Age	Total employed	Full time		Part time	
		Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total, 16 years and over	33,417	23,863	71.4	9,554	28.6
16 to 24 years	8,610	5,601	65.1	3,009	34.9
16 to 19 years	3,329	1,462	43.9	1,867	56.1
20 to 24 years	5,281	4,139	78.4	1,142	21.6
25 to 44 years	13,388	9,984	74.6	3,405	25.4
25 to 34 years	7,331	5,610	76.5	1,721	23.5
35 to 44 years	6,057	4,374	72.2	1,684	27.8
45 to 54 years	6,438	4,903	76.2	1,535	23.8
55 to 64 years	4,022	2,966	73.7	1,056	26.3
65 years and over	959	410	42.8	549	57.2

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table 13.—Work Experience in 1973[1] of Married Women, Husband Present, by Presence and Age of Children, and by Race, March 1974

Presence and age of children and race	With work experience		Percent distribution of wives with work experience							
				Worked at full-time jobs[2]				Worked at part-time jobs[3]		
	Number (thousands)	Percent of civilian noninstitutional population	Total	Total	50 to 52 weeks	27 to 49 weeks	1 to 26 weeks	Total	27 weeks or more	1 to 26 weeks
ALL WIVES										
Total	24,120	52.0	100.0	69.0	42.6	12.9	13.4	31.0	18.5	12.5
With children under 18 years	13,259	53.4	100.0	63.9	34.6	13.1	16.2	36.1	20.2	15.9
Under 6 years	5,600	47.4	100.0	65.8	25.1	15.9	24.7	34.2	15.6	18.6
3 to 5 years, none under 3	2,393	49.0	100.0	62.6	32.6	13.0	17.0	37.4	20.4	17.0
Under 3 years	3,207	46.3	100.0	68.1	19.6	18.1	30.4	31.9	12.0	19.9
6 to 17 years only	7,659	58.9	100.0	62.6	41.5	11.1	10.0	37.4	23.5	13.9
No children under 18 years	10,861	50.3	100.0	75.1	52.5	12.7	10.0	24.9	16.4	8.5
WHITE										
Total	21,792	51.2	100.0	68.0	41.8	12.8	13.4	32.0	19.1	12.9
With children under 18 years	11,758	52.3	100.0	61.8	32.9	12.6	16.2	38.2	21.5	16.8
Under 6 years	4,859	45.9	100.0	63.0	22.5	15.3	25.1	37.0	17.1	19.9
3 to 5 years, none under 3	2,060	46.9	100.0	59.3	29.7	12.5	17.1	40.7	22.6	18.1
Under 3 years	2,799	45.3	100.0	65.6	17.2	17.4	31.1	34.4	13.0	21.3
6 to 17 years only	6,899	57.9	100.0	60.9	40.3	10.7	9.9	39.1	24.5	14.6
No children under 18 years	10,034	50.0	100.0	75.3	52.2	13.0	10.1	24.7	16.4	8.3
NEGRO										
Total	2,016	60.3	100.0	77.3	50.1	13.3	13.8	22.7	12.8	9.9
With children under 18 years	1,296	65.0	100.0	80.6	47.8	16.7	16.2	19.4	9.9	9.5
Under 6 years	648	62.3	100.0	84.6	42.3	20.1	22.2	15.4	5.2	10.2
3 to 5 years, none under 3	300	70.1	100.0	83.7	49.7	16.3	17.7	16.3	5.7	10.7
Under 3 years	348	56.8	100.0	85.3	35.9	23.3	26.1	14.7	4.9	9.8
6 to 17 years only	648	68.1	100.0	76.7	53.2	13.3	10.2	23.3	14.5	8.8
No children under 18 years	720	53.3	100.0	71.2	54.4	7.2	9.6	28.8	18.1	10.7

[1] Worked at some time during the year.
[2] Worked 35 hours or more a week during a majority of the weeks worked.
[3] Worked less than 35 hours a week during a majority of the weeks worked.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 14.—Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age, 1948–1974

Year	All workers	16 to 19 years			20 years and over		
		Women	Men	Difference	Women	Men	Difference
1948	3.8	8.3	9.8	−1.5	3.6	3.2	0.4
1949	5.9	12.3	14.2	−1.9	5.3	5.4	−.1
1950	5.3	11.4	12.7	−1.3	5.1	4.7	.4
1951	3.3	8.3	8.1	.2	4.0	2.5	1.5
1952	3.0	8.0	8.9	−.9	3.2	2.4	.8
1953	2.9	7.2	7.9	−.7	2.9	2.5	.4
1954	5.5	11.4	13.5	−2.1	5.5	4.9	.6
1955	4.4	10.2	11.6	−1.4	4.4	3.8	.6
1956	4.1	11.2	11.1	.1	4.2	3.4	.8
1957	4.3	10.6	12.4	−1.8	4.1	3.6	.5
1958	6.8	14.3	17.1	−2.8	6.1	6.2	−.1
1959	5.5	13.5	15.3	−1.8	5.2	4.7	.5
1960	5.5	13.9	15.3	−1.4	5.1	4.7	.4
1961	6.7	16.3	17.2	−.9	6.3	5.7	.6
1962	5.5	14.6	14.7	−.1	5.4	4.6	.8
1963	5.7	17.2	17.2	.....	5.4	4.5	.9
1964	5.2	16.7	15.8	.9	5.2	3.9	1.3
1965	4.5	15.7	14.1	1.6	4.5	3.2	1.3
1966	3.8	14.1	11.7	2.4	3.8	2.5	1.3
1967	3.8	13.5	12.3	1.2	4.2	2.3	1.9
1968	3.6	14.0	11.6	2.4	3.8	2.2	1.6
1969	3.5	13.3	11.4	1.9	3.7	2.1	1.6
1970	4.9	15.6	15.0	.6	4.8	3.5	1.3
1971	5.9	17.2	16.6	.6	5.7	4.4	1.3
1972	5.6	16.7	15.9	.8	5.4	4.0	1.4
1973	4.9	15.2	13.9	1.3	4.5	3.2	1.6
1974	5.6	16.5	15.5	1.0	5.5	3.8	1.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 15.—Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age, Annual Averages, 1947–1974

Sex and year	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	16 and 17 years
	Number unemployed (thousands)									
MALE										
1947	1,692	114	156	392	349	250	208	162	67	28
1948	1,559	112	143	324	289	233	201	178	81	31
1949	2,572	145	207	485	539	414	347	310	125	30
1950	2,239	139	179	377	467	348	327	286	117	41
1951	1,221	102	89	155	241	192	198	162	87	29
1952	1,185	116	89	155	233	192	182	145	73	32
1953	1,202	94	90	152	236	208	196	167	60	26
1954	2,344	142	168	327	517	431	372	275	112	28
1955	1,854	134	140	248	353	328	285	265	102	35
1956	1,711	134	135	240	348	278	270	216	90	46
1957	1,841	140	159	283	349	304	302	220	83	52
1958	3,098	185	231	478	685	552	492	349	124	57
1959	2,420	191	207	343	483	407	390	287	112	53
1960	2,486	200	225	369	492	418	392	294	96	55
1961	2,997	221	258	457	585	507	[illegible]	374	122	63
1962	2,423	187	220	381	446	405	381	300	103	65
1963	2,472	248	252	396	444	386	358	289	97	65
1964	2,205	257	230	384	345	323	319	262	85	66
1965	1,914	247	232	311	293	284	258	221	75	65
1966	1,551	220	212	221	238	219	197	180	65	71
1967	1,508	241	207	235	219	185	199	164	60	87
1968	1,419	234	193	258	205	171	165	132	61	88
1969	1,403	244	197	270	205	155	157	127	48	86
1970	2,235	305	294	478	390	253	247	197	71	109
1971	2,776	345	346	635	508	319	313	239	71	119
1972	2,635	355	352	619	456	282	273	226	73	119
1973	2,240	349	298	514	424	209	219	170	57	122
1974	2,668	391	359	631	528	263	252	182	63	142
FEMALE										
1947	619	63	81	124	134	99	72	39	10	18
1948	717	66	86	132	169	113	90	49	12	18
1949	1,065	93	130	195	237	189	124	74	21	18
1950	1,049	87	108	184	235	183	151	82	20	24
1951	834	66	79	118	194	162	125	76	16	17
1952	698	64	76	113	156	133	92	50	13	17
1953	632	56	67	104	143	117	84	51	10	10
1954	1,188	79	112	177	276	249	176	99	20	19
1955	998	77	99	148	224	193	151	90	18	18
1956	1,039	97	112	155	206	198	159	95	19	28
1957	1,018	90	107	147	224	195	146	80	28	25
1958	1,504	114	148	223	308	319	239	122	31	22
1959	1,320	110	146	200	242	266	214	119	23	20
1960	1,366	124	163	214	260	256	222	101	25	24
1961	1,717	142	207	265	304	342	278	141	36	30
1962	1,488	124	189	255	267	283	223	111	37	31
1963	1,598	172	211	262	286	287	231	120	29	31
1964	1,581	179	207	276	262	281	223	122	33	24
1965	1,452	164	231	246	236	263	183	101	27	24
1966	1,324	175	229	224	201	207	173	86	27	30
1967	1,468	160	231	277	261	237	185	93	26	38
1968	1,397	179	233	285	238	199	149	87	27	39
1969	1,428	192	220	290	247	203	163	89	24	43
1970	1,853	231	275	386	325	262	229	111	33	59
1971	2,217	249	318	486	416	310	260	141	38	65
1972	2,205	274	321	497	405	293	237	140	38	72
1973	2,064	279	300	471	416	240	211	117	31	67
1974	2,408	301	359	552	483	294	247	135	36	86

Table 15.—Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Sex and Age, Annual Averages, 1947–1974—Continued

Sex and year	Total, 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over	14 and 15 years
	Unemployment rate									
MALE										
1947	4.0	10.3	11.3	8.5	3.4	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.8	4.8
1948	3.6	10.1	9.6	6.9	2.8	2.4	2.5	3.1	3.4	5.4
1949	5.9	13.7	14.6	10.4	5.2	4.3	4.3	5.4	5.1	5.2
1950	5.1	13.3	12.3	8.1	4.4	3.6	4.0	4.9	4.8	6.6
1951	2.8	9.4	7.0	3.9	2.3	2.0	2.4	2.8	3.5	4.7
1952	2.8	10.5	7.4	4.6	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.4	3.0	5.5
1953	2.8	8.8	7.2	5.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.8	2.4	4.6
1954	5.3	13.9	13.2	10.7	4.8	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.4	4.9
1955	4.2	12.5	10.8	7.7	3.3	3.1	3.2	4.3	4.0	6.2
1956	3.8	11.7	10.4	6.9	3.3	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.5	6.9
1957	4.1	12.4	12.3	7.8	3.3	2.8	3.3	3.5	3.4	7.6
1958	6.8	16.3	17.8	12.7	6.5	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.2	8.4
1959	5.3	15.8	14.9	8.7	4.7	3.7	4.1	4.5	4.8	7.8
1960	5.4	15.5	15.0	8.9	4.8	3.8	4.1	4.6	4.2	8.6
1961	6.4	18.3	16.3	10.7	5.7	4.6	4.9	5.7	5.5	8.7
1962	5.2	15.9	13.8	8.9	4.5	3.6	3.9	4.6	4.6	8.3
1963	5.2	18.8	15.9	8.8	4.5	3.5	3.6	4.3	4.5	8.8
1964	4.6	17.1	14.6	8.1	3.5	2.9	3.2	3.9	4.0	9.0
1965	4.0	16.1	12.4	6.3	3.0	2.6	2.5	3.3	3.5	8.6
1966	3.2	13.7	10.2	4.6	2.4	2.0	2.0	2.6	3.1	8.9
1967	3.1	14.5	10.5	4.7	2.1	1.7	1.9	2.4	2.8	10.5
1968	2.9	13.9	9.7	5.1	1.9	1.6	1.6	1.9	2.9	10.3
1969	2.8	13.8	9.4	5.1	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.8	2.2	9.8
1970	4.4	16.9	13.4	8.4	3.4	2.4	2.4	2.8	3.3	12.2
1971	5.3	18.6	15.0	10.3	4.4	3.1	3.0	3.3	3.4	12.8
1972	4.9	18.2	14.0	9.2	3.7	2.7	2.6	3.2	3.6	12.7
1973	4.1	17.0	11.4	7.3	3.3	2.0	2.1	2.4	3.0	12.7
1974	4.8	18.5	13.3	8.7	3.9	2.6	2.4	2.6	3.3	14.5
FEMALE										
1947	3.7	9.8	6.8	4.6	3.6	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.2	7.8
1948	4.1	9.8	7.4	4.9	4.3	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.3	7.3
1949	6.0	14.4	11.2	7.3	5.9	4.7	4.0	4.4	3.8	7.4
1950	5.7	14.2	9.8	6.9	5.7	4.4	4.5	4.5	3.4	9.0
1951	4.4	10.0	7.2	4.4	4.5	3.8	3.5	4.0	2.9	6.6
1952	3.6	9.1	7.3	4.5	3.6	3.0	2.5	2.5	2.2	7.0
1953	3.3	8.5	6.4	4.3	3.4	2.5	2.3	2.5	1.4	4.2
1954	6.0	12.7	10.5	7.3	6.6	5.3	4.6	4.6	3.0	7.5
1955	4.9	12.0	9.1	6.1	5.3	4.0	3.6	3.8	2.3	7.0
1956	4.8	13.2	9.9	6.3	4.8	3.9	3.6	3.6	2.3	8.9
1957	4.7	12.6	9.4	6.0	5.3	3.8	3.2	3.0	3.4	7.5
1958	6.8	16.6	12.9	8.9	7.3	6.2	4.9	4.5	3.8	6.6
1959	5.9	14.4	12.9	8.1	5.9	5.1	4.2	4.1	2.8	5.7
1960	5.9	15.4	13.0	8.3	6.3	4.8	4.2	3.4	2.8	7.9
1961	7.2	18.3	15.1	9.8	7.3	6.3	5.1	4.5	3.9	6.2
1962	6.2	16.8	13.5	9.1	6.5	5.2	4.1	3.5	4.1	6.7
1963	6.5	20.3	15.2	8.9	6.9	5.1	4.2	3.6	3.2	7.6
1964	6.2	18.8	15.1	8.6	6.3	5.0	3.9	3.5	3.4	5.9
1965	5.5	17.2	14.8	7.3	5.5	4.6	3.2	2.8	2.8	5.7
1966	4.8	16.6	12.6	6.3	4.5	3.6	2.9	2.3	2.8	6.3
1967	5.2	14.8	12.7	7.0	5.4	4.0	3.1	2.4	2.7	7.2
1968	4.8	15.9	12.9	6.7	4.7	3.4	2.4	2.2	2.7	7.0
1969	4.7	15.5	11.8	6.3	4.6	3.4	2.6	2.2	2.3	7.5
1970	5.9	17.4	14.4	7.9	5.7	4.4	3.5	2.7	3.1	9.3
1971	6.9	18.7	16.2	9.6	7.0	5.2	4.0	3.3	3.6	10.2
1972	6.6	18.8	15.2	9.3	6.2	4.9	3.6	3.3	3.5	10.8
1973	6.0	17.7	13.5	8.4	5.8	3.9	3.2	2.8	2.9	9.5
1974	6.7	18.2	15.4	9.5	6.2	4.6	3.7	3.3	3.7	12.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table 16.—Percent Distribution of Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Reason for Unemployment, Annual Averages, 1967–1974

Year and reason for unemployment	Total unemployed (thousands)	Percent distribution of unemployed						Unemployment rate [1]					
		Total	Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	Male, 20 years and over	Female, 20 years and over	White	Negro and other races	Total	Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	Male, 20 years and over	Female, 20 years and over	White	Negro and other races
1967													
Total: Number (thousands)	[2] 3,008	[2] 3,008	859	1,061	1,088	2,366	642	3.8	13.2	2.3	4.3	3.4	7.4
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	1,229	40.9	17.5	63.9	36.8	41.7	37.8	1.6	2.3	1.5	1.6	1.4	2.8
Left last job	438	14.6	11.1	15.5	16.4	14.7	14.2	.6	1.5	.4	.7	.5	1.1
Reentered labor force	945	31.4	34.5	18.3	41.8	31.3	33.0	1.2	4.5	.4	1.8	1.1	2.4
Never worked before	396	13.1	36.9	2.3	5.0	12.4	16.0	.5	4.9	.1	.2	.4	1.2
1968													
Total: Number (thousands)	2,817	2,817	839	993	985	2,226	590	3.6	12.7	2.2	3.8	3.2	6.7
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	1,070	38.0	15.5	60.4	34.7	38.1	37.4	1.3	1.9	1.3	1.3	1.2	2.5
Left last job	431	15.3	11.6	16.8	17.0	15.5	14.5	.5	1.5	.4	.6	.5	1.0
Reentered labor force	909	32.3	33.5	20.7	42.9	32.3	33.2	1.2	4.2	.4	1.6	1.0	2.2
Never worked before	407	14.4	39.4	2.2	5.6	14.1	15.9	.5	5.0	[3]	.2	.4	1.1
1969													
Total: Number (thousands)	2,831	2,831	853	963	1,015	2,261	570	3.5	12.2	2.1	3.7	3.1	6.4
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	1,017	35.9	14.8	57.8	33.0	36.1	35.1	1.2	1.8	1.2	1.2	1.1	2.3
Left last job	436	15.4	11.9	17.0	16.8	15.8	13.9	.5	1.5	.4	.6	.5	.9
Reentered labor force	965	34.1	34.5	22.4	44.8	33.9	34.7	1.2	4.2	.5	1.7	1.1	2.2
Never worked before	413	14.6	38.8	2.8	5.5	14.2	16.2	.5	4.8	.1	.2	.4	1.0
1970													
Total: Number (thousands)	4,088	4,088	1,105	1,636	1,347	3,337	752	4.9	15.3	3.5	4.8	4.5	8.2
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	1,809	44.3	18.1	65.1	40.4	45.0	40.9	2.2	2.8	2.2	1.9	2.1	3.3
Left last job	549	13.4	11.4	12.8	15.9	13.7	12.3	.7	1.7	.4	.8	.6	1.0
Reentered labor force	1,227	30.0	34.3	19.4	39.4	29.4	32.5	1.5	5.2	.7	1.9	1.3	2.7
Never worked before	503	12.3	36.2	2.7	4.3	11.9	14.3	.6	5.5	.1	.2	.5	1.2
1971													
Total: Number (thousands)	4,993	4,993	1,257	2,086	1,650	4,074	919	5.9	16.9	4.4	5.7	5.4	9.9
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	2,313	46.3	18.5	66.3	42.2	47.2	42.4	2.7	3.1	2.9	2.4	2.6	4.2
Left last job	587	11.8	9.2	11.4	14.2	11.9	11.2	.7	1.6	.5	.8	.6	1.1
Reentered labor force	1,466	29.4	32.5	19.6	39.3	28.9	31.6	1.7	5.5	.9	2.3	1.6	3.1
Never worked before	627	12.6	39.8	2.7	4.3	12.1	14.8	.7	6.7	.1	.2	.7	1.5
1972													
Total: Number (thousands)	4,840	4,840	1,302	1,928	1,610	3,884	956	5.6	16.2	4.0	5.4	5.0	10.0
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	2,089	43.1	18.9	62.6	39.4	44.0	39.7	2.4	3.1	2.5	2.2	2.3	4.0
Left last job	635	13.1	9.9	12.7	16.2	13.6	11.4	.7	1.6	.5	.9	.7	1.1
Reentered labor force	1,444	29.8	30.2	21.6	39.4	29.1	32.8	1.7	4.9	.9	2.1	1.5	3.3
Never worked before	672	13.9	41.0	3.1	4.9	13.3	16.1	.8	6.6	.1	.3	.7	1.6

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 16.—Percent Distribution of Unemployed Persons 16 Years and Over and Unemployment Rates, by Reason for Unemployment, Annual Averages, 1967–1974—Continued

Year and reason for unemployment	Total unemployed (thousands)	Percent distribution of unemployed						Unemployment rate [1]					
		Total	Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	Male, 20 years and over	Female, 20 years and over	White	Negro and other races	Total	Both sexes, 16 to 19 years	Male, 20 years and over	Female, 20 years and over	White	Negro and other races
1973													
Total: Number (thousands)	4,304	4,304	1,225	1,594	1,485	3,410	894	4.9	14.5	3.2	4.8	4.3	8.9
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	1,666	38.7	17.2	59.1	34.6	39.8	34.5	1.9	2.4	1.9	1.6	1.7	3.1
Left last job	674	15.7	11.8	15.9	18.6	16.2	13.7	.8	1.7	.5	.9	.7	1.2
Reentered labor force	1,323	30.7	29.5	21.6	41.5	30.0	33.4	1.5	4.3	.7	2.0	1.3	3.0
Never worked before	642	14.9	41.5	3.4	5.3	14.0	18.4	.7	6.0	.1	.3	.6	1.6
1974													
Total: Number (thousands)	5,076	5,076	1,410	1,918	1,748	4,057	1,018	5.6	16.0	3.8	5.5	5.0	9.9
Percent		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
Lost last job	2,205	43.5	19.7	65.3	38.6	44.2	40.3	2.4	3.1	2.5	2.1	2.2	3.9
Left last job	756	14.9	12.2	14.1	18.0	15.6	12.0	.8	2.0	.5	1.0	.8	1.2
Reentered labor force	1,441	28.4	30.6	18.1	37.9	27.9	30.2	1.6	4.9	.7	2.1	1.4	3.0
Never worked before	672	13.2	37.4	2.4	5.6	12.2	17.5	.7	6.0	.1	.3	.6	1.7

[1] For the "reasons" categories, unemployment rates are computed as a percent of the total civilian labor force and thus will sum to the total rate shown.
[2] Differs slightly from the 1967 total published elsewhere because of technical reasons connected with the introduction of a new series.
[3] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 17.—Median Years on Current Job, by Sex, Age, and Race, January 1973

Age and race	Women	Men
Total, 16 years and over	2.8	4.6
16 to 19 years	.6	.6
20 to 24 years	1.2	1.2
25 to 34 years	2.2	3.2
35 to 44 years	3.6	6.7
45 to 54 years	5.9	11.5
55 to 64 years	8.8	14.5
65 years and over	10.9	13.9
White	2.8	4.7
Negro and other races	3.3	4.0

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 18.—Median Years on Current Job, for Women by Marital Status, and for Men by Age, January 1973

Age	Women				Men
	Total	Single	Married, spouse present	Other marital status [1]	
Total, 16 years old and over	2.8	1.3	3.3	4.2	4.6
16 to 24 years	.9	.8	1.1	.9	.8
25 to 34 years	2.2	3.2	2.1	1.7	3.2
35 to 44 years	3.6	7.2	3.5	3.3	6.7
45 to 54 years	5.9	10.7	5.9	5.3	11.5
55 to 64 years	8.8	15.0	9.0	7.6	14.5
65 years and over	10.9	13.3	11.0	10.5	13.9

[1] Includes divorced, separated, and widowed women.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 19.—Women Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in Nonagricultural Industries, 1940–1970

[Numbers in thousands]

Industry	1940			1950			1960			1970		
		Women			Women			Women			Women	
	Total employed	Number	Percent of total	Total employed	Number	Percent of total	Total employed	Number	Percent of total	Total employed	Number	Percent of total
Total nonagricultural industries	32,058	9,794	31	43,478	14,113	32	54,579	19,449	36	69,115	27,496	40
Mining	869	12	1	880	22	2	626	30	5	616	50	8
Construction	1,603	33	2	2,752	86	3	3,062	130	4	3,976	244	6
Manufacturing	10,317	2,323	23	14,053	3,594	26	17,142	4,354	25	19,566	5,623	29
Durable goods	5,162	604	12	7,460	1,219	16	9,621	1,707	18	11,596	2,483	21
Nondurable	5,155	1,719	33	6,478	2,337	36	7,464	2,627	35	7,970	3,140	39
Knitting mills	217	130	60	189	119	63	195	132	68	962	445	46
Apparel, etc	768	522	68	1,036	754	73	1,131	858	76	1,201	939	78
Leather and leather products	363	139	38	371	167	45	345	173	50	282	160	57
Food and kindred products	1,054	197	19	1,328	311	23	1,757	417	24	1,364	356	26
Meat products	207	32	15	267	55	21	311	76	24	(1)	(1)	(1)
Canned and preserved food and seafood	89	32	36	140	57	41	202	85	42	(1)	(1)	(1)
Confectionery and related products	70	36	51	73	37	51	75	38	51	(1)	(1)	(1)
Chemicals and allied products	433	76	18	642	129	20	850	163	19	930	222	23
Transportation and public utilities	2,911	345	12	4,138	666	16	4,268	757	18	5,039	1,106	22
Telecommunications	392	210	54	637	389	61	818	426	52	1,071	522	49
Radio and TV	23	5	22	(1)	.....	.....	87	22	25	131	33	25
Trucking and warehouse	330	17	5	545	42	8	776	61	8	992	106	11
Wholesale and retail trade	5,522	1,669	30	8,122	3,013	37	9,653	3,835	40	13,810	5,871	43
Wholesale	1,009	174	17	1,687	362	21	1,943	422	22	2,907	699	24
Retail	4,514	1,495	33	6,434	2,651	41	7,710	3,413	44	10,903	5,172	47

General merchandise	718	468	65	873	595	68	1,211	821	68	2,005	1,392	69
Eating and drinking	817	385	47	1,266	719	57	1,429	912	64	2,061	1,271	62
Apparel and accessory stores	356	181	51	408	266	65	442	317	72	667	437	66
Finance, insurance and real estate	1,294	435	34	1,670	739	44	2,417	1,181	49	3,610	1,870	52
Services	6,984	4,321	62	8,584	5,007	58	11,668	7,241	62	18,282	11,436	63
Personal, including private household and hotels	3,268	2,449	75	2,930	2,097	72	3,247	2,464	76	3,010	2,256	75
Private households	2,196	1,931	88	1,598	1,405	88	1,880	1,701	90	[1]	1,124	[1]
Business and repair	583	64	11	999	155	16	1,181	287	24	2,006	624	31
Professional service	2,796	1,736	62	4,166	2,623	63	6,803	4,352	64	12,707	8,352	66
Medical and health	745	543	73	1,365	1,006	74	2,223	1,710	77	3,907	3,096	79
Medical and health, except hospitals	[1]	[1]	.....	393	302	77	544	448	82	1,249	1,039	83
Hospitals	[1]	[1]	.....	972	704	72	1,679	1,262	75	2,658	2,057	77
Education	1,514	976	64	2,019	1,283	64	3,292	2,062	63	6,080	3,788	62
Private	[1]	[1]	.....	470	281	60	762	464	61	1,550	957	62
Government	[1]	[1]	.....	1,549	1,002	65	2,530	1,598	63	4,530	2,831	62
Legal [2]	156	85	54	120	81	68	144	109	76	386	178	46
Other services, including recreation and amusement	338	72	21	489	131	27	437	138	32	559	204	36
Public administration [3]	1,758	350	20	2,471	648	26	3,194	909	28	4,216	1,297	31
Postal service	309	36	12	451	52	12	551	65	12	719	144	20
Federal public administration	299	104	35	1,003	339	34	1,266	444	35	1,528	546	36
State and local	848	203	24	1,017	258	25	1,377	400	29	1,824	557	31
State	[1]	.....	.....	264	100	38	396	152	38	538	202	38
Local	[1]	.....	.....	753	158	21	981	248	25	1,286	355	28
Industry not elsewhere reported	800	305	38	809	338	42	2,548	1,013	40	.....	.....	.....

[1] Data not available.
[2] 1940 figures include engineers and miscellaneous professionals.
[3] 1940 figures are for government instead of public administration.

NOTE.—Because some industries are not included in this table, subgroups do not always add to total for major industrial division.

Source: Census of Population, Industrial Characteristics, 1940 (Vol. III). 1950 (P–E No. 1D), 1960 (PC(2) 7F), 1970 (FC(2) 7C); (Bureau of the Census).

Table 20.—Women Employees on Nonagricultural Payrolls, by Selected Industries, Annual Averages, 1964 and 1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Industry group	1964		1974	
	Number of women	Percent of total employed	Number of women	Percent of total employed
Total nonagricultural industries	19,672	34	30,053	38
Private	15,954	33	23,720	37
Mining	34	5	44	6
Construction	146	5	236	6
Manufacturing	4,537	26	5,835	29
Durable goods	1,756	19	2,605	22
Fabricated metal products	197	17	281	19
Machinery, except electrical	205	13	359	16
Electrical equipment and supplies	577	37	848	42
Transportation equipment	162	10	213	12
Instruments and related products	125	34	210	40
Miscellaneous manufacturing	166	42	204	46
Nondurable goods	2,782	37	3,230	39
Food and kindred products	421	24	463	27
Meat products	81	26	102	30
Poultry dressing plants	37	53	59	55
Canned, cured, and frozen foods	112	44	131	43
Canned, cured, and frozen seafoods	24	62	27	58
Confectionery and related products	39	51	37	48
Tobacco manufacturers	44	49	33	42
Textile mill products	388	43	472	47
Knitting mills	147	68	176	64
Apparel and other textile products	1,031	79	1,083	81
Printing and publishing	276	29	385	35
Periodicals	32	46	34	50
Blankbooks and bookbinding	22	45	28	51
Chemicals and allied products	165	19	224	21
Leather and leather products	183	53	173	61
Transportation and public utilities	748	19	1,000	21
Communications	423	50	552	46
Telephone communication	392	56	498	50
Radio and television broadcasting	23	22	41	27
Wholesale and retail trade	4,618	33	6,992	41
Wholesale trade	703	22	1,012	24
Retail trade	3,915	44	5,979	47
Retail general merchandise	1,224	69	1,799	68
Food stores	458	32	737	38
Apparel and accessory stores	403	65	498	67
Eating and drinking places	1,063	58	1,768	56
Miscellaneous retail stores	438	43	657	46
Drug stores and proprietary stores	226	58	287	62
Finance, insurance, and real estate	1,470	50	2,226	53
Banking	462	60	821	66
Credit agencies other than banks	169	54	256	59
Security, commodity brokers, and services	39	31	61	34
Insurance carriers	440	49	591	53
Insurance agents, brokers, and services	127	56	180	57
Real estate	196	35	262	34

See footnote at end of table.

Table 20.—Women Employees on Nonagricultural Payrolls, by Selected Industries, Annual Averages, 1964 and 1974—Continued

[Numbers in thousands]

Industry group	1964		1974	
	Number of women	Percent of total employed	Number of women	Percent of total employed
Services	4,425	51	7,388	55
Hotels, tourist courts, and motels	273	48	409	53
Personal services	568	60	538	63
Miscellaneous business services	345	34	695	35
Advertising	41	37	53	44
Credit reporting and collection	44	70	57	70
Services to buildings	46	27	146	38
Medical and other health services	1,522	76	3,180	80
Hospitals	1,053	81	1,737	80
Legal services	108	62	195	63
Educational services	385	43	595	48
Elementary and secondary schools	166	55	244	60
Colleges and universities	193	37	274	41
Government	3,718	39	6,333	44
Federal	530	23	798	29
State	708	38	1,320	43
State education	244	40	551	43
Other State government	464	37	769	44
Local	2,480	46	4,215	49
Local education	1,818	63	2,973	62
Other local government	662	27	1,242	33

Note.—Because some industries are not included in this table, subgroups do not always add to total for major industrial division.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table 21.—Occupation Group of Employed Wage and Salary Workers in Nonagricultural Industries, by Sex, 1970

Industry and sex	Total [1]		Percentage in each occupation group								
	Number (in thousands)	Percent	Professional, technical and kindred workers	Managers and administrators	Sales workers	Clerical and kindred workers	Craft and kindred workers	Operatives, except transport	Transport equipment operatives	Laborers, except farm	Service workers, except private household [1]
Total: Women	26,373	100.0	16.6	3.2	7.4	37.5	1.8	15.0	0.5	0.9	17.1
Men	41,619	100.0	14.6	10.5	6.9	8.6	22.2	15.2	6.4	7.0	8.8
Mining and construction: Women	294	100.0	5.1	3.4	1.0	72.1	8.5	3.7	.7	2.7	2.4
Men	4,297	100.0	5.9	7.2	.7	2.8	53.2	9.3	5.0	14.4	1.1
Manufacturing: Durable goods: Women	2,483	100.0	3.8	1.1	.5	33.7	4.8	52.6	.2	1.9	1.3
Men	9,113	100.0	14.0	5.8	1.9	6.4	26.7	34.0	3.3	5.5	2.4
Nondurable goods: Women	3,140	100.0	3.9	1.0	1.3	22.5	4.4	63.9	.2	1.7	1.0
Men	4,831	100.0	10.0	7.8	5.9	6.8	23.8	30.8	5.9	5.7	3.3
Transportation and public utilities: Women	1,106	100.0	4.2	3.2	1.3	74.6	2.0	1.1	7.7	.8	5.2
Men	3,934	100.0	8.8	8.1	1.3	11.0	23.6	3.9	25.3	10.2	2.8
Wholesale trade: Women	699	100.0	2.7	4.1	5.3	67.0	2.3	13.7	.7	2.6	1.6
Men	2,208	100.0	5.0	16.9	24.6	10.0	12.5	7.3	14.2	7.9	1.5
Retail trade: Women	5,171	100.0	1.3	4.8	31.8	29.2	1.6	3.6	.2	1.3	26.2
Men	5,732	100.0	2.8	17.0	19.3	6.8	14.4	11.3	5.5	9.3	13.5
Finance, insurance, and real estate: Women	1,870	100.0	2.9	6.2	7.3	79.7	.3	.3	.....	.2	3.2
Men	1,740	100.0	7.9	26.1	32.4	19.6	3.4	.5	.5	2.3	7.5
Services: Women	10,312	100.0	36.9	2.5	.7	28.0	.6	3.1	.1	.4	27.7
Men	6,846	100.0	40.4	9.6	1.4	6.0	11.8	3.9	2.3	3.8	20.8
Medical and other health services: Women	3,096	100.0	33.1	1.5	.2	20.4	.4	1.6	[2]	.3	42.6
Men	811	100.0	34.5	7.2	.2	5.4	10.0	3.0	1.4	1.8	36.4
Educational services: Women	3,788	100.0	59.0	2.6	.2	22.7	.4	.4	.2	.1	14.5
Men	2,292	100.0	60.0	9.2	.3	5.2	4.4	1.0	.7	1.8	17.5
Public administration: Women	1,297	100.0	11.3	6.3	.3	72.6	.8	.8	.1	.6	7.2
Men	2,919	100.0	18.9	12.5	.2	25.3	9.7	2.0	2.0	4.0	25.5

[1] Excludes all women, but includes a few men, who were private household workers.
[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

Note.—Because of rounding, sums of individual items may not equal totals.

Source: Census of Population, 1970: Occupation by Industry, Report (PC(2)7C), (Bureau of the Census).

Table 22.—Self-Employed Women 16 Years Old and Over, by Major Nonagricultural Industry Group, Annual Average, 1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Major nonagricultural industry group	All persons	Number of women	Women as percent of total self-employed
Total self-employed	5,634	1,456	25.8
Goods-producing	1,138	42	3.7
Mining and construction	880	14	1.6
Manufacturing	258	28	10.9
Service-producing	4,496	1,414	31.5
Transportation and public utilities	215	9	4.2
Trade	1,711	478	27.9
Wholesale	239	14	5.9
Retail	1,472	465	31.6
Eating and drinking places	271	93	34.3
Other retail trade	1,201	371	30.9
Finance, insurance, and real estate	305	65	21.3
Services	2,265	862	38.1
Private household	37	36	97.3
Service, except private household	2,228	826	37.1
Business and repair	534	63	11.8
Personal	714	482	67.5
Professional	846	251	29.7
Medical, including hospital	330	66	20.0
Education	121	103	85.1
Other professional	394	81	20.6
Other services	134	31	23.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 23.—Usual Weekly Earnings of Employed Wage and Salary Workers 16 Years Old and Over, by Sex, Occupation, and Usual Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974

Sex and occupation	Total with earnings (thousands)	Percent distribution										Median
		Total	Under $60	$60 to $99	$100 to $124	$125 to $149	$150 to $199	$200 to $249	$250 to $299	$300 to $499	$500 and over	
WOMEN						**Full time**						
Total	22,089	100.0	3.1	25.5	21.7	16.0	19.9	8.2	3.4	1.9	0.2	$124
White-collar workers	14,285	100.0	1.4	16.2	19.9	17.6	25.3	11.4	5.0	2.8	.4	142
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	3,770	100.0	1.4	3.9	7.6	11.7	31.8	23.7	11.9	7.5	.6	188
Medical and other health workers	917	100.0	.4	4.8	9.5	10.9	36.7	23.8	8.6	5.0	.4	183
Teachers, except college	1,688	100.0	.8	2.9	5.0	12.4	32.7	25.4	12.8	7.9	.1	193
Other professional, technical, and kindred workers	1,164	100.0	3.3	4.8	9.8	11.3	26.2	21.2	13.1	9.0	1.3	189
Managers and administrators, except farm	1,133	100.0	2.8	10.5	14.4	15.0	25.5	16.4	8.1	6.1	1.2	161
Sales workers	948	100.0	5.2	53.3	17.0	8.6	10.0	2.9	2.0	.7	.4	95
Clerical and kindred workers	8,433	100.0	.9	18.6	26.5	21.6	23.9	6.1	1.8	.5	.2	129
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries	3,414	100.0	.4	13.8	27.1	22.5	27.7	5.8	2.0	.4	.3	134
Other clerical workers	5,020	100.0	1.2	21.8	26.1	21.0	21.4	6.2	1.7	.5	.1	126
Blue-collar workers	4,396	100.0	.9	38.9	28.7	15.7	11.6	3.3	.7	.2	.....	108
Craft and kindred workers	403	100.0	1.3	26.4	20.1	19.2	18.6	11.6	1.9	.9	.....	127
Operatives, except transport	3,670	100.0	.7	40.4	29.2	15.5	11.2	2.3	.5	.1	.....	107
Durable goods	1,456	100.0	.3	26.2	31.6	21.1	15.7	4.2	.7	.2	.....	119
Nondurable goods	1,863	100.0	.3	47.7	29.3	12.7	8.4	1.1	.5	.....	.....	101
All other	352	100.0	5.2	59.1	20.3	7.5	6.6	1.0	.....	.3	.....	93
Transport equipment operatives	64	(1)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	(1)
Nonfarm laborers	259	100.0	2.7	39.6	32.0	12.8	8.7	3.7	.5	.....	.....	106
Service workers	3,337	100.0	12.6	46.0	19.9	9.9	9.3	1.3	.5	.6	.....	92
Private household workers	358	100.0	59.7	28.6	7.9	1.1	1.9	.....	.....	.8	.....	49
Health service	1,052	100.0	2.1	38.0	27.7	15.8	14.0	1.0	.6	.9	.....	109
Food service	1,037	100.0	15.0	57.0	14.9	7.2	4.6	1.3	.....	.....	.....	83
Other	890	100.0	5.1	48.9	20.9	9.2	11.9	2.4	1.0	.7	.....	97
Farm workers	71	(1)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	(1)

		Part time									
Total	8,902	100.0	66.2	23.1	5.2	1.3	2.1	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	$47
White-collar workers	4,822	100.0	58.4	26.0	7.5	2.8	3.1	1.2	.4	.5	.1	53
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	975	100.0	36.0	29.8	15.0	5.7	7.3	3.4	1.1	1.7	.....	75
Medical and other health workers	307	100.0	20.4	40.9	23.8	7.4	4.5	3.0	.....	.....	.....	88
Teachers, except college	388	100.0	40.3	26.1	8.7	4.8	11.0	3.9	1.6	3.5	.....	70
Other professional, technical, and kindred workers	281	100.0	47.3	22.3	13.3	4.3	6.0	3.4	2.1	1.3	.....	64
Managers and administrators, except farm	186	100.0	45.2	32.1	13.1	2.2	4.4	1.5	1.5	.....	.....	64
Sales workers	1,049	100.0	76.8	18.2	3.2	.9	.5	.2	.....	.....	.2	43
Clerical and kindred workers	2,613	100.0	61.2	27.1	5.9	2.4	2.4	.7	.1	.2	.....	51
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries	727	100.0	55.4	31.8	6.7	2.2	2.2	1.2	.3	.2	.....	56
Other clerical workers	1,885	100.0	63.1	25.4	5.7	2.5	2.4	.6	.1	.2	.....	50
Blue-collar workers	698	100.0	57.2	33.6	4.9	1.6	2.3	.....	.....	.....	.3	54
Craft and kindred workers	72	(1)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	(1)
Operatives, except transport	430	100.0	54.6	36.0	5.4	1.7	2.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	56
Durable goods	85	100.0	45.1	33.8	7.0	4.2	9.9	.....	.....	.....	.....	65
Nondurable goods	202	100.0	44.1	44.7	8.1	1.9	1.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	65
All other	143	100.0	74.4	23.9	1.7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	45
Transport equipment operatives	110	100.0	46.0	48.0	3.0	.....	3.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	62
Nonfarm laborers	86	100.0	84.3	7.9	.....	2.6	2.6	.....	.....	.....	2.6	29
Service workers	3,304	100.0	78.1	17.0	2.3	.7	.9	.5	.1	.5	.1	37
Private household workers	852	100.0	93.6	5.0	.1	.....	.....	.1	.....	.7	.4	20
Health service	320	100.0	64.1	26.4	6.8	.8	1.1	.8	.....	.....	.....	50
Food service	1,385	100.0	75.6	20.8	1.8	.9	.6	.....	.....	.3	.....	42
Other	747	100.0	71.4	19.5	3.4	1.0	2.1	1.8	.5	.3	.....	42
Farm workers	77	100.0	87.5	9.7	2.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	29

See footnote at end of table.

Table 23.—Usual Weekly Earnings of Employed Wage and Salary Workers 16 Years Old and Over, by Sex, Occupation, and Usual Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974—Continued

Sex and occupation	Total with earnings (thousands)	Percent distribution										Median
		Total	Under $60	$60 to $99	$100 to $124	$125 to $149	$150 to $199	$200 to $249	$250 to $299	$300 to $499	$500 and over	
		Full time										
MEN												
Total	41,625	100.0	0.9	5.6	8.6	9.8	23.2	21.4	12.1	15.5	3.0	$204
White-collar workers	17,023	100.0	.5	2.5	4.4	6.4	18.1	20.4	15.4	25.4	6.9	244
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	6,108	100.0	.4	1.4	2.1	4.7	16.5	20.2	17.9	30.3	6.5	263
Medical and other health workers	445	100.0	.6	3.0	2.7	4.3	21.6	19.5	17.3	17.3	13.7	246
Teachers, except college	911	100.0	.1	1.1	.8	7.0	30.1	26.8	15.9	17.1	1.1	220
Other professional, technical, and kindred workers	4,751	100.0	.4	1.4	2.3	4.3	13.3	18.9	18.4	34.2	6.9	276
Managers and administrators, except farm	5,735	100.0	.6	1.2	2.8	4.3	14.6	19.2	15.1	31.6	10.6	274
Sales workers	2,263	100.0	.8	5.0	7.8	9.0	19.5	17.0	13.8	20.0	7.2	223
Clerical and kindred workers	2,916	100.0	.2	5.4	9.5	11.6	27.0	25.3	12.0	7.9	1.1	192
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries	40	(1)										(1)
Other clerical workers	2,876	100.0	.2	5.5	9.4	11.8	27.0	25.1	12.1	7.9	1.0	192
Blue-collar workers	21,074	100.0	.5	6.1	10.4	11.2	27.1	23.6	10.6	10.0	.5	188
Craft and kindred workers	9,548	100.0	.2	2.7	6.3	8.0	24.7	27.8	14.2	15.3	.8	214
Operatives, except transport	5,918	100.0	.4	7.1	13.1	14.0	30.6	23.0	7.2	4.5	.1	170
Durable goods	3,433	100.0	.1	5.0	11.2	13.2	33.2	25.2	7.8	4.2	.1	181
Nondurable goods	1,436	100.0	.2	8.5	16.4	16.2	30.8	19.6	5.7	2.7		161
All other	1,049	100.0	1.6	12.5	14.8	13.4	21.6	20.3	7.2	8.3	.4	164
Transport equipment operatives	2,623	100.0	.9	8.2	11.6	10.4	26.5	18.7	11.4	11.5	.9	182
Nonfarm laborers	2,985	100.0	1.4	12.7	16.7	16.3	28.5	16.0	5.3	3.0		153
Service workers	2,832	100.0	2.4	14.1	15.3	16.8	24.9	13.5	6.9	5.5	.5	152
Private household workers	12	(1)										(1)
Health service	129	100.0	1.9	16.5	19.4	25.3	26.2	4.9	1.9	3.9		136
Food service	517	100.0	5.2	27.2	17.8	16.8	16.8	11.2	2.5	2.0	.5	124
Other	2,174	100.0	1.6	10.8	14.4	16.3	27.0	14.6	8.3	6.5	.5	163
Farm workers	697	100.0	12.2	26.8	26.4	14.9	12.4	4.6	1.1	.9	.7	110

			Part time									
Total	4,600	100.0	65.7	16.2	4.5	2.5	3.9	2.7	1.5	2.2	0.7	$47
White-collar workers	1,319	100.0	57.7	15.7	5.1	2.3	5.0	3.6	3.1	5.8	1.8	53
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	413	100.0	42.0	19.7	7.0	1.7	7.7	4.0	5.0	10.3	2.7	70
Medical and other health workers	54	(1)										(1)
Teachers, except college	74	(1)										(1)
Other professional, technical, and kindred workers	285	100.0	44.7	22.4	6.7	1.0	7.1	2.9	4.8	7.1	3.3	67
Managers and administrators, except farm	194	100.0	35.4	9.1	5.0	2.5	8.3	14.9	5.8	10.7	8.3	120
Sales workers	316	100.0	72.4	10.0	4.6	1.3	3.8	.8	2.1	5.0		44
Clerical and kindred workers	396	100.0	69.7	18.6	3.6	3.6	2.3	1.0	1.3			44
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries	15	(1)										(1)
Other clerical workers	381	100.0	68.9	18.9	3.7	3.7	2.4	1.0	1.4			45
Blue-collar workers	2,043	100.0	61.4	17.7	5.6	3.4	4.8	3.6	1.5	1.5	.5	50
Craft and kindred workers	440	100.0	40.2	19.4	8.3	6.1	8.3	9.4	3.9	3.0	1.4	73
Operatives, except transport	438	100.0	62.6	18.8	6.8	3.0	4.9	2.2	.3	1.4		49
Durable goods	104	100.0	54.6	17.9	9.5	5.3	9.5			3.2		56
Nondurable goods	65	(1)										(1)
All other	270	100.0	72.2	16.3	5.9	2.3	.9	1.4	.5	.5		40
Transport equipment operatives	285	100.0	54.3	18.7	6.5	3.5	6.1	5.2	1.7	3.0	.9	55
Nonfarm laborers	881	100.0	74.4	15.8	3.0	2.2	2.4	.9	.6	.4	.3	43
Service workers	1,030	100.0	79.4	14.7	2.5	1.1	1.6	.3	.2		.2	39
Private household workers	17	(1)										(1)
Health service	23	(1)										(1)
Food service	480	100.0	79.2	15.9	3.2	.7	.5	.5				39
Other	510	100.0	79.8	13.0	2.0	1.3	2.7	.4	.4		.4	38
Farm workers	208	100.0	81.3	13.3	.6	1.8	.6	1.2		1.2		33

[1] Percent and median not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 24.—Employment Status of Head in Husband-Wife Families,[1] by Employment Status of Family Members, Selected Dates, 1955–1974

Employment status of head and date	Total (thousands)	Percent distribution							
		Family member in labor force							
			By relationship to head				By employment status		
		Total	Total	Wife only	Wife and other member	Other member only	At least one member employed [2]	All unemployed	No family member in labor force
HEAD IN LABOR FORCE [3]									
April 1955	34,064	100.0	39.9	23.9	4.9	11.2	38.2	1.8	60.1
March 1958	34,412	100.0	41.9	26.0	5.4	10.5	38.8	3.0	58.1
March 1959	34,625	100.0	43.3	26.1	6.1	11.2	40.1	3.2	56.7
March 1960	35,041	100.0	43.0	25.8	6.2	11.1	40.1	2.9	57.0
March 1961	35,453	100.0	45.0	27.6	6.6	10.8	41.2	3.8	55.0
March 1962	35,713	100.0	45.0	28.1	6.5	10.4	42.0	3.0	55.0
March 1963	36,079	100.0	46.5	28.7	6.9	10.8	43.3	3.2	53.5
March 1964	36,286	100.0	47.6	28.8	7.6	11.1	44.3	3.3	52.4
March 1965	36,545	100.0	47.4	29.6	7.3	10.5	44.6	2.9	52.6
March 1966	36,763	100.0	48.7	29.8	8.2	10.7	46.2	2.4	51.3
March 1967	37,060	100.0	50.4	30.7	8.8	10.9	47.9	2.5	49.6
March 1968	37,668	100.0	50.7	32.6	8.3	9.8	48.5	2.1	49.3
March 1969	38,144	100.0	51.8	33.4	8.9	9.4	49.8	1.9	48.2
March 1970	38,639	100.0	53.1	34.5	9.3	9.3	50.7	2.5	46.9
March 1971	38,496	100.0	53.5	34.7	9.2	9.6	50.3	3.2	46.5
March 1972	39,116	100.0	54.6	35.1	9.9	9.6	51.6	3.0	45.4
March 1973	39,298	100.0	55.7	36.0	9.8	9.9	53.0	2.7	44.3
March 1974	39,312	100.0	57.2	37.4	9.9	9.8	54.3	2.9	42.8
HEAD EMPLOYED [3]									
April 1955	32,893	100.0	39.6	23.6	4.8	11.2	38.0	1.6	60.4
March 1958	32,298	100.0	41.4	25.5	5.3	10.5	38.8	2.6	58.6
March 1959	33,149	100.0	43.1	25.8	6.0	11.3	40.1	2.9	56.9
March 1960	33,579	100.0	42.7	25.5	6.1	11.2	40.0	2.7	57.3
March 1961	33,428	100.0	44.6	27.3	6.6	10.8	41.2	3.5	55.4
March 1962	34,185	100.0	44.7	27.8	6.4	10.5	41.9	2.8	55.3
March 1963	34,595	100.0	46.2	28.6	6.9	10.8	43.2	3.0	53.8
March 1964	35,052	100.0	47.3	28.6	7.6	11.2	44.3	3.1	52.7
March 1965	35,512	100.0	47.2	29.4	7.3	10.5	44.5	2.7	52.8
March 1966	35,918	100.0	48.6	29.7	8.1	10.8	46.3	2.3	51.4
March 1967	36,305	100.0	50.3	30.5	8.8	10.9	47.9	2.4	49.7
March 1968	36,945	100.0	50.6	32.5	8.3	9.8	48.6	2.0	49.4
March 1969	37,523	100.0	51.8	33.4	8.9	9.5	49.9	1.9	48.2
March 1970	37,667	100.0	53.1	34.3	9.3	9.4	50.7	2.4	46.9
March 1971	37,146	100.0	53.4	34.5	9.1	9.8	50.4	3.0	46.6
March 1972	37,855	100.0	54.5	34.9	9.9	9.7	51.7	2.8	45.5
March 1973	38,247	100.0	55.7	35.9	9.9	9.9	53.1	2.6	44.3
March 1974	38,252	100.0	57.2	37.4	9.9	9.9	54.5	2.7	42.8

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 24.—Employment Status of Head in Husband-Wife Families,[1] by Employment Status of Family Members, Selected Dates, 1955–1974—Continued

Employment status of head and date	Total (thousands)	Percent distribution							
			Family member in labor force						
				By relationship to head			By employment status		
		Total	Total	Wife only	Wife and other member	Other member only	At least one member employed [2]	All unemployed	No family member in labor force
HEAD UNEMPLOYED									
April 1955	1,171	100.0	48.8	31.3	6.6	10.8	42.4	6.4	51.2
March 1958	2,114	100.0	49.0	32.4	6.9	9.7	39.3	9.7	51.0
March 1959	1,477	100.0	49.0	32.6	7.1	9.3	40.8	8.2	51.0
March 1960	1,462	100.0	49.7	32.1	8.0	9.6	41.7	7.9	50.3
March 1961	2,025	100.0	51.4	34.1	6.5	10.8	41.5	9.9	48.6
March 1962	1,528	100.0	50.9	34.1	8.6	8.3	42.6	8.3	49.0
March 1963	1,484	100.0	53.2	32.3	9.0	11.9	45.7	7.5	46.8
March 1964	1,234	100.0	54.4	36.6	7.7	10.1	44.4	10.0	45.6
March 1965	1,033	100.0	54.6	36.6	7.8	10.3	47.5	7.2	45.4
March 1966	847	100.0	50.1	31.9	10.4	7.8	42.9	7.2	49.9
March 1967	755	100.0	56.3	36.7	9.1	10.5	48.2	8.1	43.7
March 1968	723	100.0	51.7	36.9	7.3	7.5	43.9	7.7	48.3
March 1969	621	100.0	51.7	36.2	8.3	7.2	45.4	6.2	48.3
March 1970	972	100.0	56.1	41.8	7.6	6.7	50.8	5.4	43.9
March 1971	1,350	100.0	57.2	41.2	10.5	5.5	49.1	8.1	42.8
March 1972	1,261	100.0	56.4	40.6	7.5	8.3	47.7	8.7	43.6
March 1973	1,051	100.0	55.6	40.7	7.7	7.1	48.7	6.9	44.4
March 1974	1,060	100.0	56.7	39.3	8.5	8.9	48.5	8.2	43.3

[1] The number of men in husband-wife families shown here is smaller than the number shown as married with spouse present in table 8 because it excludes married couples living in households where a relative is the head.

[2] This category may also include a wife or other member who is unemployed.

[3] Includes members of the Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 25.—Earnings of Married Women, Husband Present, as a Percent of Family Income in 1973, by Selected Characteristics, March 1974[1]

Selected characteristics	Median percent of family income accounted for by wife's earnings	Percent distribution of wives by percent of family income accounted for by wife's earnings								
		Total	Less than 5.0	5.0 to 9.9	10.0 to 19.9	20.0 to 29.9	30.0 to 39.9	40.0 to 49.9	50.0 to 74.9	75.0 and over
Total wives with work experience	26.0	100.0	10.7	10.2	17.9	18.5	18.6	13.0	8.9	2.3
AGE OF HEAD										
Under 25 years old	29.2	100.0	8.2	10.8	16.5	15.7	20.7	15.0	10.0	3.1
25 years old and over	25.7	100.0	11.0	10.1	18.0	18.8	18.4	12.7	8.8	2.2
RESIDENCE AND RACE										
Nonfarm	26.1	100.0	10.5	10.1	17.8	18.7	18.7	13.1	8.9	2.2
White	25.6	100.0	10.9	10.3	18.1	18.9	18.8	12.4	8.4	2.1
Negro and other races	31.3	100.0	7.2	7.7	15.3	17.2	18.4	18.7	12.9	2.6
Farm	22.7	100.0	15.5	12.2	18.6	13.7	15.2	10.0	9.2	5.6
WORK EXPERIENCE OF WIFE										
Worked 50 to 52 weeks, full time[2]	37.5	100.0	.7	1.1	6.9	20.0	28.4	23.1	15.8	4.1
Worked 27 to 49 weeks, full time[2]	29.5	100.0	1.5	4.1	18.4	27.2	25.9	12.6	8.4	2.0
Worked 1 to 26 weeks, full time[2] or 1 to 52 weeks, part time[3]	11.3	100.0	24.3	21.7	29.3	14.1	5.9	2.4	1.8	.5
FAMILY INCOME										
Under $2,000	35.2	100.0	20.9	5.8	9.4	9.4	8.6	6.5	13.7	25.9
$2,000 to $2,999	20.0	100.0	10.8	17.3	22.2	12.4	7.0	6.5	13.0	10.8
$3,000 to $4,999	24.2	100.0	15.6	12.5	17.3	11.0	8.8	9.5	14.4	11.1
$5,000 to $6,999	25.4	100.0	11.5	14.3	16.8	13.5	14.1	7.6	14.7	7.4
$7,000 to $9,999	24.7	100.0	13.1	10.7	19.1	15.0	13.0	11.5	12.9	4.7
$10,000 to $14,999	25.5	100.0	12.0	11.0	18.1	16.0	19.1	12.4	9.8	1.6
$15,000 and over	26.6	100.0	8.8	8.8	17.6	22.2	21.4	14.7	6.1	.4
Median family income		$14,713	$13,375	$13,688	$14,585	$15,000+	$15,000+	$15,000+	$12,310	$7,639

[1] Data relate to the civilian noninstitutional population and include only those families in which the wife had paid work experience. The data are not comparable to data published before 1968 which included wives with unpaid work experience.

[2] Worked 35 hours or more per week during a majority of the weeks worked.

[3] Worked less than 35 hours per week during a majority of the weeks worked.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 26.—Usual Weekly Earnings of employed Wage and Salary Workers 16 Years Old and Over, by Age, Sex, and Usual Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974

Age and sex	Total with earnings (thousands)	Percent distribution										Median
		Total	Under $60	$60 to $99	$100 to $124	$125 to $149	$150 to $199	$200 to $249	$250 to $299	$300 to $499	$500 and over	
WOMEN						**Full time**						
Total, 16 years old and over	22,089	100.0	3.1	25.5	21.7	16.0	19.9	8.2	3.4	1.9	0.2	$124
16 to 24 years	5,152	100.0	3.4	34.8	26.9	15.9	14.7	3.3	.6	.4	.1	111
16 to 19 years	1,192	100.0	5.6	54.7	27.8	6.5	3.8	.1	.3	.3	.....	94
20 to 24 years	3,960	100.0	2.8	28.8	26.6	18.7	18.0	3.9	.6	.5	.1	117
25 to 34 years	5,337	100.0	2.2	18.5	19.9	17.3	23.9	11.5	4.6	2.0	.2	138
35 to 44 years	4,038	100.0	2.2	23.0	20.6	16.1	21.8	8.7	4.4	2.7	.5	131
45 to 54 years	4,563	100.0	2.6	24.3	20.0	15.9	21.4	8.8	4.0	2.7	.3	129
55 to 64 years	2,651	100.0	4.3	27.3	20.8	13.7	17.7	9.5	4.0	2.4	.3	122
65 years and over	348	100.0	20.8	29.4	13.7	13.3	11.8	4.3	4.7	2.0	.....	99
MEN												
Total, 16 years old and over	41,625	100.0	0.8	5.6	8.6	9.8	23.2	21.4	12.1	15.5	3.0	204
16 to 24 years	7,248	100.0	1.5	14.0	19.2	17.8	27.7	12.9	4.7	2.1	.2	146
16 to 19 years	1,669	100.0	4.0	29.0	26.9	17.5	14.5	6.3	1.0	.8	.....	115
20 to 24 years	5,579	100.0	.8	9.6	17.0	17.8	31.6	14.8	5.8	2.5	.2	155
25 to 34 years	11,316	100.0	.4	3.3	6.0	8.6	25.1	25.4	13.8	15.5	1.8	212
35 to 44 years	8,587	100.0	.5	2.6	5.2	6.9	18.8	22.2	15.0	23.7	5.1	235
45 to 54 years	8,538	100.0	.7	3.2	5.7	7.5	21.1	22.6	13.7	20.6	5.0	226
55 to 64 years	5,281	100.0	.8	6.0	8.9	8.7	23.3	21.6	12.0	15.0	3.7	205
65 years and over	655	100.0	10.0	15.9	12.8	10.2	15.9	14.2	7.3	9.5	4.2	153
						Part time						
WOMEN												
Total, 16 years and over	8,902	100.0	66.2	23.1	5.2	1.8	2.1	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	47
16 to 24 years	3,007	100.0	80.4	15.3	2.1	.7	.6	.2	.1	.4	.2	36
16 to 19 years	1,891	100.0	89.9	8.3	.5	.5	.....	.1	.....	.4	.3	31
20 to 24 years	1,116	100.0	64.1	27.4	4.9	1.0	1.6	.5	.2	.2	.....	49
25 to 34 years	1,638	100.0	53.8	27.6	8.3	3.1	4.5	1.7	.4	.7	.....	56
35 to 44 years	1,522	100.0	55.7	29.3	7.5	2.9	2.4	1.5	.2	.4	.....	56
45 to 54 years	1,351	100.0	54.5	30.8	7.8	2.0	3.2	1.0	.3	.3	.1	56
55 to 64 years	938	100.0	65.6	25.9	3.9	2.0	1.6	.3	.4	.3	.....	47
65 years and over	446	100.0	90.1	7.0	1.7	.3	.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	35
MEN												
Total, 16 years old and over	4,600	100.0	65.7	16.2	4.5	2.5	3.9	2.7	1.5	2.2	0.7	47
16 to 24 years	2,799	100.0	77.5	15.6	2.6	1.7	1.0	.8	.3	.3	.2	39
16 to 19 years	2,076	100.0	84.2	13.0	1.3	.6	.2	.5	.....	.1	.1	36
20 to 24 years	723	100.0	56.8	23.7	6.6	5.0	3.3	2.0	1.3	.9	.4	55
25 to 34 years	507	100.0	32.7	19.3	9.8	4.1	11.0	10.0	4.5	6.7	1.9	94
35 to 44 years	219	100.0	27.3	14.5	12.2	3.5	12.2	8.7	7.6	10.5	3.5	116
45 to 54 years	231	100.0	30.0	16.8	9.8	5.8	13.3	9.2	3.5	8.7	2.9	110
55 to 64 years	331	100.0	45.3	19.3	5.1	6.3	11.4	2.4	4.3	3.9	2.0	66
65 years and over	514	100.0	79.1	14.6	3.4	.8	.5	.5	.....	1.1	.....	41

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table 27.—Usual Weekly Earnings of Employed Women Wage and Salary Workers 16 Years Old and Over, by Age, Marital Status, and Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974

Age and marital status	Total with earnings (thousands)	Percent distribution										Median
		Total	Under $60	$60 to $99	$100 to $124	$125 to $149	$150 to $199	$200 to $249	$250 to $299	$300 to $499	$500 and over	
Full time												
Total, 16 years old and over	22,089	100.0	3.1	25.5	21.7	16.0	19.9	8.2	3.4	1.9	0.2	$124
Never married	4,680	100.0	4.3	28.3	21.0	13.8	18.0	8.0	3.5	2.6	.4	120
16 to 24 years	2,651	100.0	4.4	38.1	26.0	13.8	13.3	3.3	.5	.6	.1	107
16 to 19 years	886	100.0	5.8	56.7	26.0	6.2	3.4	1.3	.1	.4	.....	93
20 to 24 years	1,765	100.0	3.6	28.6	26.2	17.6	18.3	4.4	.6	.7	.1	117
25 to 54 years	1,682	100.0	2.5	13.7	13.7	13.8	26.2	15.4	8.5	5.4	.7	159
55 to 64 years	287	100.0	13.0	14.6	13.0	13.0	20.3	12.0	5.2	7.3	1.6	143
65 years and over	60	(1)	.....									(1)
Married, spouse present	12,812	100.0	2.3	24.3	22.4	16.8	20.9	8.1	3.4	1.7	.2	126
16 to 24 years	2,149	100.0	2.2	31.0	27.7	18.3	16.4	3.3	.7	.3	.1	114
16 to 19 years	272	100.0	4.3	51.1	32.0	6.7	4.3	.8	.8	.....		96
20 to 24 years	1,877	100.0	1.9	28.2	27.0	20.0	18.2	3.7	.7	.3	.1	118
25 to 54 years	9,187	100.0	2.2	21.9	21.1	16.7	22.6	9.3	4.0	2.0	.2	132
55 to 64 years	1,383	100.0	2.0	28.3	22.9	14.7	16.8	8.7	4.1	2.2	.3	121
65 years and over	93	100.0	19.2	30.9	14.1	15.4	12.3	3.8	3.8	.....		101
Other marital status [2]	4,596	100.0	4.1	26.4	20.6	15.8	19.2	8.5	3.2	1.9	.3	123
16 to 24 years	351	100.0	4.5	34.4	27.3	15.1	14.8	2.7	.7	.7	.....	110
16 to 19 years	34	(1)	.....									(1)
20 to 24 years	317	100.0	3.8	34.2	26.5	15.8	15.0	3.1	.8	.8	.....	111
25 to 54 years	3,069	100.0	2.7	24.2	20.4	17.1	20.5	9.1	3.4	2.2	.4	128
55 to 64 years	981	100.0	5.1	29.2	20.1	12.5	18.0	9.8	3.5	1.5	.....	119
65 years and over	194	100.0	21.7	30.8	13.3	11.2	12.6	3.5	4.9	2.1	.....	96
Part time												
Total, 16 years old and over	8,902	100.0	66.2	23.1	5.2	1.8	2.1	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	47
Never married	2,634	100.0	84.5	10.7	1.4	.8	1.3	.6	.2	.3	.1	33
16 to 24 years	2,363	100.0	88.1	9.5	.9	.4	.5	.1	.1	.3	.2	33
16 to 19 years	1,794	100.0	91.7	6.9	.5	.3	.....	.1	.....	.3	.2	30
20 to 24 years	569	100.0	76.1	18.3	2.3	.5	2.3	.....	.5	.....	.....	41
25 to 54 years	205	100.0	46.1	22.4	5.8	5.1	10.3	7.1	1.9	1.3	.....	66
55 to 64 years	36	(1)	.....									(1)
65 years and over	30	(1)	.....									(1)
Married, spouse present	4,980	100.0	56.8	29.9	7.2	2.1	2.4	.9	.3	.4	(3)	54
16 to 24 years	564	100.0	53.3	36.3	6.2	1.8	1.0	1.0	.....		.4	56
16 to 19 years	90	100.0	63.1	31.0	.....	3.6	.....	.....	.....		2.4	47
20 to 24 years	474	100.0	51.7	37.3	7.5	1.4	1.2	1.2	.....	.....	.....	58
25 to 54 years	3,698	100.0	55.5	29.6	8.0	2.2	2.8	1.0	.3	.5	.....	55
55 to 64 years	596	100.0	61.0	30.3	4.4	1.7	1.3	.4	.6	.4	.....	50
65 years and over	122	100.0	90.0	5.6	1.1	1.1	2.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	38
Other marital status [2]	1,288	100.0	66.7	20.9	5.1	2.9	2.7	1.1	.....	.4	.2	47
16 to 24 years	81	100.0	65.6	20.9	4.5	3.0	.....	.....	.....	6.0	.....	46
16 to 19 years	8	(1)	.....									(1)
20 to 24 years	73	(1)	.....									(1)
25 to 54 years	608	100.0	51.7	28.4	8.0	4.8	4.4	2.3	.....	.....	.4	58
55 to 64 years	305	100.0	75.5	17.8	2.5	2.1	2.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	43
65 years and over	294	100.0	91.1	7.2	1.3	.....	.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	34

[1] Percent and median not shown where base is less than 75,000.
[2] Includes divorced, widowed, and married, husband absent.
[3] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 28.—Usual Weekly Earnings of Employed Wage and Salary Workers, by Sex, Industry, and Usual Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974

Sex and industry	Total with earnings (thousands)	Percent distribution										Median
		Total	Under $60	$60 to $99	$100 to $124	$125 to $149	$150 to $199	$200 to $249	$250 to $299	$300 to $499	$500 and over	
Full time												
WOMEN												
Total	22,089	100.0	3.1	25.5	21.7	16.0	19.9	8.2	3.4	1.9	0.2	$124
Goods-producing industries	5,751	100.0	.6	28.9	28.2	17.4	17.7	5.1	1.4	.6	.1	118
Agriculture	118	100.0	11.8	44.1	28.4	5.9	6.9	2.9	.....	.....	.....	95
Mining	48	(1)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	(1)
Manufacturing	5,403	100.0	.3	29.2	28.4	17.7	17.3	5.2	1.5	.5	(2)	118
Durable goods	2,525	100.0	.3	20.5	27.8	21.0	21.8	7.0	1.6	.3	.....	127
Nondurable goods	2,878	100.0	.3	38.1	28.0	14.8	13.3	3.5	1.3	.6	.1	110
Service-producing industries	16,338	100.0	4.0	24.3	19.4	15.5	20.7	9.3	4.1	2.4	.3	128
Transportation and public utilities	1,006	100.0	1.0	8.9	18.0	21.1	32.7	12.2	4.1	1.7	.2	151
Trade	3,654	100.0	5.7	42.2	21.1	13.4	12.3	3.4	1.4	.4	.2	102
Wholesale	643	100.0	.6	23.0	24.9	23.2	18.0	6.2	3.2	.9	.....	126
Retail	3,010	100.0	6.8	46.4	20.3	11.2	11.0	2.8	1.0	.3	.2	97
Finance, insurance, real estate	1,921	100.0	.9	17.5	31.2	21.8	20.9	5.1	1.9	.5	.2	125
Private household services	387	100.0	57.6	27.8	9.7	2.1	2.1	.....	.....	.7	.....	51
Miscellaneous services	8,203	100.0	2.4	22.3	17.4	14.3	22.3	11.8	5.4	3.7	.4	138
Public administration	1,168	100.0	.6	5.4	13.7	20.2	31.2	16.6	8.3	3.7	.3	163
Postal	104	100.0	.....	2.3	2.3	6.8	20.6	53.3	13.6	1.1	.....	217
Other Federal	516	100.0	.7	1.7	11.0	16.7	36.5	16.2	11.7	5.5	.....	173
State and local	549	100.0	.7	9.9	18.9	26.3	27.9	9.7	3.9	2.5	.2	145
Part time												
Total	8,902	100.0	66.2	23.1	5.2	1.8	2.1	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	47
Goods-producing industries	729	100.0	56.9	30.0	7.6	2.7	2.0	.7	.....	.....	.....	54
Agriculture	99	100.0	86.0	11.8	2.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	31
Mining	5	(1)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	(1)
Manufacturing	558	100.0	50.6	34.9	8.6	2.5	2.5	.9	.....	.....	.....	59
Durable goods	181	100.0	48.0	32.0	9.3	3.3	5.3	2.0	.....	.....	.....	62
Nondurable goods	377	100.0	52.0	36.1	8.2	2.0	1.0	.7	.....	.....	.....	58
Service-producing industries	8,173	100.0	67.0	22.4	5.0	1.8	2.1	.8	.3	.4	.1	46
Transportation and public utilities	222	100.0	36.3	36.3	4.2	4.2	10.5	7.4	1.1	.....	.....	70
Trade	2,965	100.0	74.6	20.7	2.8	1.0	.6	.....	.1	.1	.1	43
Wholesale	122	100.0	46.7	41.8	8.2	2.0	3.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	63
Retail	2,842	100.0	75.8	19.8	2.6	1.0	.5	.....	.1	.1	.1	43
Finance, insurance, real estate	363	100.0	52.7	29.1	9.8	3.6	4.0	.7	.....	.....	.....	58
Private household services	885	100.0	93.7	4.9	.1	.....	.....	.1	.....	.8	.4	20
Miscellaneous services	3,522	100.0	57.6	26.9	7.8	2.6	2.9	1.2	.4	.6	.....	53
Public administration	216	100.0	63.3	20.3	5.1	.....	7.9	2.3	1.1	.....	.....	49
Postal	42	(1)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	(1)
Other Federal	39	(1)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	(1)
State and local	135	100.0	72.3	21.4	2.7	.....	3.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	45

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 28.—Usual Weekly Earnings of Employed Wage and Salary Workers, by Sex, Industry, and Usual Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974—Continued

Sex and industry	Total with earnings (thousands)	Percent distribution										Median
		Total	Under $60	$60 to $99	$100 to $124	$125 to $149	$150 to $199	$200 to $249	$250 to $299	$300 to $499	$500 and over	
Full time												
MEN												
Total	41,625	100.0	0.8	5.6	8.6	9.8	23.2	21.4	12.1	15.5	3.0	204
Goods-producing industries	19,670	100.0	.7	4.9	9.1	10.3	24.4	21.8	11.5	15.3	2.0	201
Agriculture	868	100.0	10.2	24.4	25.7	16.5	13.7	5.2	1.8	1.7	.8	115
Mining	537	100.0	.....	1.7	4.5	4.3	20.0	31.1	17.6	17.8	3.0	231
Manufacturing	14,176	100.0	.2	4.1	8.2	10.6	26.5	23.5	11.3	13.5	2.1	200
Durable goods	9,334	100.0	.2	3.3	7.4	10.1	27.1	24.1	11.5	14.2	2.0	203
Nondurable goods	4,841	100.0	.1	5.8	9.7	11.6	25.3	22.2	11.0	12.0	2.3	194
Service-producing industries	21,955	100.0	1.0	6.2	8.2	9.3	22.0	20.9	12.6	15.8	4.0	207
Transportation and public utilities	3,983	100.0	.6	2.8	5.4	6.0	22.6	25.5	17.3	17.6	2.2	224
Trade	6,727	100.0	1.0	9.8	11.8	12.0	22.7	18.6	10.1	11.0	3.1	179
Wholesale	2,234	100.0	.2	4.1	9.2	10.2	20.0	20.0	13.8	17.2	5.4	215
Retail	4,493	100.0	1.3	12.4	13.0	12.8	23.9	18.0	8.4	8.1	2.0	167
Finance, insurance, real estate	1,761	100.0	.9	5.7	5.4	7.5	21.7	18.0	11.3	19.4	10.0	224
Private household services	37	(1)	.....									(1)
Miscellaneous services	6,342	100.0	1.6	7.2	9.0	10.8	21.0	17.4	11.6	17.3	4.3	201
Public administration	3,104	100.0	.4	1.5	4.0	6.0	22.3	28.2	14.4	18.8	4.5	228
Postal	578	100.0	.....	.2	1.3	2.7	21.7	47.4	18.1	8.2	.4	225
Other Federal	1,025	100.0	.4	1.1	1.8	4.2	17.9	21.6	9.0	32.9	11.1	266
State and local	1,502	100.0	.6	2.2	6.4	8.4	25.4	25.4	16.5	13.4	1.7	214
Part time												
Total	4,600	100.0	65.8	16.2	4.5	2.5	3.9	2.7	1.5	2.2	0.7	47
Goods-producing industries	1,043	100.0	54.1	16.5	7.2	3.7	7.0	5.5	2.4	3.0	.6	56
Agriculture	249	100.0	78.4	16.0	.5	1.5	1.5	1.0	.....	1.0	.....	36
Mining	17	(1)	.....									(1)
Manufacturing	527	100.0	48.3	16.5	8.4	3.7	9.0	6.7	3.0	3.7	.7	63
Durable goods	293	100.0	46.2	13.8	11.2	4.2	9.6	7.1	3.8	2.9	1.2	69
Nondurable goods	234	100.0	50.3	19.4	4.7	3.1	9.4	6.3	2.1	4.7	.....	59
Service-producing industries	3,557	100.0	69.1	16.1	3.7	2.2	3.0	1.9	1.2	2.0	.8	44
Transportation and public utilities	244	100.0	42.0	20.3	5.9	5.9	9.2	4.3	3.8	5.4	3.2	71
Trade	1,671	100.0	75.7	16.2	3.0	1.8	1.0	1.2	.2	.7	.2	42
Wholesale	132	100.0	59.2	19.4	1.0	.....	9.2	4.1	.....	7.1	.....	52
Retail	1,539	100.0	77.2	15.9	3.1	1.9	.4	.9	.2	.2	.2	41
Finance, insurance, real estate	152	100.0	44.7	21.3	3.0	6.0	9.0	5.0	3.0	5.0	3.0	66
Private household services	157	100.0	94.5	4.6	.....					.9	.....	18
Miscellaneous services	1,187	100.0	68.0	15.3	4.4	1.7	3.2	1.8	1.4	3.2	1.0	45
Public administration	147	100.0	44.5	21.4	6.5	.8	12.2	6.5	6.5	1.6	.....	66
Postal	27	(1)	.....									(1)
Other Federal	18	(1)	.....									(1)
State and local	103	100.0	49.4	24.2	6.6	.....	8.8	5.5	5.5	.....		64

[1] Percent and median not shown where base is less than 75,000.
[2] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 29.—Median Usual Weekly Earnings of Employed Wage and Salary Workers, by Sex, Occupation, Union Affiliation, and Usual Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974

Occupation	Median usual weekly earnings											
	Women						Men					
	Full time			Part time			Full time			Part time		
	Total	Union members	Non-union members	Total	Union members	Non-union members	Total	Union members	Non-union members	Total	Union members	Non-union members
Total	$124	$145	$120	$47	$76	$45	$204	$215	$194	$47	$117	$44
White-collar workers	142	170	138	53	80	51	244	232	247	53	126	50
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	188	222	182	75	176	72	263	259	263	70	261	64
Medical and other health workers	183	205	182	88	110	87	246	257	245	63	70	61
Teachers, except college	193	223	184	70	212	65	220	245	206	173	286	94
Engineers	251	275	237	70	.....	70	327	298	330	272	.....	272
Engineering and science technicians	158	199	155	57	.....	57	217	231	212	45	.....	45
Other professional, technical, and kindred workers	190	231	183	63	187	61	274	282	272	64	254	63
Managers and administrators, except farm	161	190	160	64	44	65	274	269	274	120	54	123
Sales workers	95	125	94	43	70	42	223	200	225	44	55	43
Clerical and kindred workers	129	153	125	51	75	50	192	209	177	44	74	41
Stenographers, typists, and secretaries	134	146	133	56	175	55	216	256	201	36	.....	36
Other clerical workers	126	155	121	50	74	47	192	209	177	45	74	42
Blue-collar workers	108	124	101	54	85	50	188	214	162	50	132	46
Craft and kindred workers	127	161	119	55	137	54	214	236	191	73	183	61
Operatives, except transport	107	123	99	56	83	52	170	193	144	49	131	45
Mining	157	.....	157	.....	.....	.....	215	218	210	162	.....	162
Motor vehicle	157	171	93	162	162	.....	220	224	160	.....	.....	.....
Other durable goods	118	136	109	63	162	61	169	182	149	55	126	50
Nondurable goods	101	113	97	65	82	58	161	181	134	75	188	62
All other	93	114	89	45	84	44	164	224	139	40	98	39
Transport equipment operatives	114	144	110	62	91	59	182	223	150	55	188	48
Nonfarm laborers	106	119	98	29	.....	29	153	187	126	43	59	40
Service workers	92	123	89	37	66	36	152	171	142	39	65	37
Private household workers	49	.....	49	20	.....	20	99	112	89	12	.....	12
Health service	109	129	105	50	86	50	136	152	125	55	59	53
Food service	83	114	81	42	63	39	124	137	119	39	68	38
Cleaning	91	118	87	44	63	43	136	150	127	36	82	34
Personal service	107	149	105	44	176	41	141	155	133	31	23	31
Protective service	111	137	108	43	58	40	197	222	183	54	55	54
Farm workers	90	107	89	29	32	29	110	120	109	33	.....	33

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 30.—Median Usual Weekly Earnings of Employed Wage and Salary Workers, by Sex, Industry, Union Affiliation, and Usual Full- or Part-Time Status, May 1974

Industry	Median usual weekly earnings											
	Women						Men					
	Full time			Part time			Full time			Part time		
	Total	Union members	Non-union members	Total	Union members	Non-union members	Total	Union members	Non-union members	Total	Union members	Non-union members
Total	$124	$145	$120	$47	$76	$45	$204	$215	$194	$47	$117	$44
Goods-producing industries	118	126	115	54	78	51	201	211	189	56	160	50
Agriculture	95	107	95	31	32	30	115	142	114	36	90	35
Mining	150	.....	150	39	32	89	231	228	234	100	.....	100
Manufacturing	118	126	114	59	81	56	200	197	205	63	156	54
Durable goods	127	138	122	62	79	61	203	198	211	69	138	55
Nondurable goods	110	116	107	58	81	54	194	194	194	59	192	54
Service-producing industries	128	162	123	46	76	44	207	222	198	44	84	42
Transportation and public utilities	151	159	141	70	143	61	224	232	201	71	182	57
Trade	102	136	99	43	66	42	179	201	174	42	59	40
Wholesale	126	128	126	63	81	61	215	209	218	52	122	49
Retail	97	138	95	43	65	41	167	196	162	41	57	39
Finance, insurance, real estate	125	149	125	58	162	57	224	187	227	66	176	65
Private household services	51	162	51	20	.....	20	110	112	109	18	.....	18
Miscellaneous service	138	169	133	53	79	52	201	214	197	45	108	42
Public administration	163	176	160	49	92	45	228	224	231	66	164	64
Postal	217	218	214	60	100	24	225	223	231	89	177	74
Other Federal	173	170	173	68	252	61	266	228	290	156	274	55
State	151	158	149	59	.....	59	220	216	221	55	.....	55
Local	141	154	140	43	83	42	211	223	203	63	49	64

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 31.—Employment Status of the Farm Population 14 Years Old and Over, by Sex, April 1973 and 1970, by Regions, April 1973

[Numbers in thousands. Figures are April-centered annual averages]

Labor force status and sex	Total		North and West 1973	South 1973	Percent distribution			
					Total		North and West 1973	South 1973
	1973	1970			1973	1970		
Both sexes	7,318	7,222	4,553	2,765	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Labor force	4,454	4,293	2,878	1,577	60.9	59.4	63.2	57.0
Not in labor force	2,864	2,929	1,676	1,188	39.1	40.6	36.8	43.0
Labor force	4,454	4,293	2,878	1,577	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employed	4,371	4,211	2,830	1,541	98.1	98.1	98.3	97.7
Agriculture	2,249	2,333	1,537	712	50.5	54.3	53.4	45.1
Nonagricultural industries	2,121	1,878	1,292	829	47.6	43.7	44.9	52.6
Unemployed	84	82	48	36	1.9	1.9	1.7	2.3
Male	3,789	3,730	2,388	1,401	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Labor force	3,038	2,974	1,962	1,076	80.2	79.7	82.2	76.7
Not in labor force	751	756	425	326	19.8	20.3	17.8	23.3
Labor force	3,038	2,974	1,962	1,076	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employed	2,993	2,932	1,937	1,056	98.5	98.6	98.8	98.1
Agriculture	1,821	1,902	1,228	593	59.9	64.0	62.6	55.1
Nonagricultural industries	1,172	1,030	708	464	38.6	34.6	36.1	43.1
Unemployed	45	42	25	20	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.9
Female	3,530	3,492	2,166	1,364	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Labor force	1,417	1,319	915	502	40.1	37.8	42.2	36.8
Not in labor force	2,113	2,173	1,251	862	59.9	62.2	57.8	63.2
Labor force	1,417	1,319	915	502	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Employed	1,378	1,279	893	485	97.2	97.0	97.6	96.6
Agriculture	428	431	308	120	30.2	32.7	33.7	23.9
Nonagricultural industries	950	849	584	366	67.0	64.4	63.8	72.9
Unemployed	39	40	23	16	2.8	3.0	2.5	3.2

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Farm Population of the United States: 1973," P-27, No. 45, September 1974.

Table 32.—Farm Population, by Age and Sex, April 1973 and 1970

[Numbers in thousands. Figures are April-centered annual averages]

Age	Both sexes		Male		Female		Percent distribution					
							Both sexes		Male		Female	
	1973	1970	1973	1970	1973	1970	1973	1970	1973	1970	1973	1970
All ages.....	9,472	9,712	4,912	5,004	4,560	4,708	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under 14 years.....	2,154	2,490	1,123	1,274	1,030	1,216	22.7	25.6	22.9	25.5	22.6	25.8
14 years and over.....	7,318	7,222	3,789	3,730	3,530	3,492	77.3	74.4	77.1	74.5	77.4	74.2
14 to 19 years....	1,301	1,316	706	714	596	602	13.7	13.6	14.4	14.3	13.1	12.8
20 to 24 years....	571	502	321	269	250	232	6.0	5.2	6.5	5.4	5.5	4.9
25 to 34 years....	806	770	404	371	402	399	8.5	7.9	8.2	7.4	8.8	8.5
35 to 44 years....	997	1,061	479	518	517	543	10.5	10.9	9.8	10.4	11.3	11.5
45 to 54 years....	1,286	1,250	648	618	639	631	13.6	12.9	13.2	12.4	14.0	13.4
55 to 64 years....	1,211	1,202	630	641	581	561	12.8	12.4	12.8	12.8	12.7	11.9
65 years and over.	1,146	1,122	601	599	545	523	12.1	11.6	12.2	12.0	12.0	11.1

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Farm Population of the United States: 1973," P-27, No. 45, September 1974.

Table 33.—Number of Children Under 18 Years Old, by Age, Type of Family, Labor Force Status of Mother, and Race, March 1970 and March 1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Type of family, labor force status of mother, and race	Age of children, 1970			Age of children, 1974		
	Under 18 years	Under 6 years	6 to 17 years	Under 18 years	Under 6 years	6 to 17 years
Total children [1]	65,755	19,606	46,149	63,542	18,505	45,037
Mother in labor force	25,544	5,590	19,954	26,768	6,086	20,682
Husband-wife family	58,399	17,920	40,479	54,154	16,303	37,851
Mother in labor force	21,982	4,947	17,035	22,165	5,173	16,992
Mother not in labor force	36,417	12,973	23,444	31,989	11,130	20,859
Female family head [2]	6,695	1,593	5,102	8,648	2,106	6,542
Mother in labor force	3,562	643	2,919	4,603	913	3,690
Mother not in labor force	3,133	950	2,183	4,045	1,193	2,852
Other male family head [2]	661	93	568	740	96	644
White children, total	56,903	16,940	39,963	54,504	15,902	38,602
Mother in labor force	21,194	4,459	16,735	22,292	4,942	17,350
Husband-wife family	52,336	15,975	36,361	48,591	14,610	33,981
Mother in labor force	18,865	4,083	14,782	19,168	4,346	14,822
Mother not in labor force	33,471	11,892	21,579	29,423	10,264	19,159
Female family head [2]	4,102	908	3,194	5,339	1,229	4,110
Mother in labor force	2,329	376	1,953	3,124	596	2,528
Mother not in labor force	1,773	532	1,241	2,215	633	1,582
Other male family head [2]	465	57	408	574	63	511
Negro children, total	8,054	2,381	5,673	8,068	2,259	5,809
Mother in labor force	4,015	1,031	2,984	4,028	1,018	3,012
Husband-wife family	5,335	1,683	3,652	4,743	1,379	3,364
Mother in labor force	2,810	775	2,035	2,603	717	1,886
Mother not in labor force	2,525	908	1,617	2,140	662	1,478
Female family head [2]	2,529	663	1,866	3,168	852	2,316
Mother in labor force	1,205	256	949	1,425	301	1,124
Mother not in labor force	1,324	407	917	1,743	551	1,192
Other male family head [2]	190	35	155	157	28	129

[1] Children are defined as "own" children of the family head and include never married sons and daughters, step-children, and adopted children. Excluded are other related children such as grandchildren, nieces, nephews, and cousins, and unrelated children.

[2] Widowed, divorced, separated, and single family heads.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 34.—Number of Families and Average Number of Own Children Under 18 Years Old, by Type of Family, Labor Force Status of Mother, and Race, March 1970 and March 1974

Type of family, labor force status of mother, and race	March 1970		March 1974	
	Number of families with children under 18 years old (thousands)	Average number of children per family [1]	Number of families with children under 18 years old (thousands)	Average number of children per family [1]
ALL FAMILIES				
Husband-wife families	25,547	2.29	25,275	2.14
Mother in labor force	10,210	2.15	10,907	2.03
Mother not in labor force	15,337	2.37	14,368	2.23
Female family head	2,924	2.29	4,080	2.12
Mother in labor force	1,731	2.06	2,438	1.89
Mother not in labor force	1,193	2.63	1,642	2.46
WHITE				
Husband-wife families	23,285	2.25	22,887	2.12
Mother in labor force	8,970	2.10	9,565	2.00
Mother not in labor force	14,315	2.34	13,322	2.21
Female family head	1,994	2.05	2,731	1.95
Mother in labor force	1,237	1.88	1,742	1.79
Mother not in labor force	757	2.34	989	2.24
NEGRO				
Husband-wife families	2,001	2.67	2,020	2.35
Mother in labor force	1,120	2.51	1,160	2.24
Mother not in labor force	881	2.87	860	2.49
Female family head	912	2.77	1,289	2.46
Mother in labor force	485	2.48	671	2.12
Mother not in labor force	427	3.10	618	2.82

[1] See footnote 1, table 33.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table 35.—Employment Status of Female Family Heads, by Age and Race, March 1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Labor force status	Total 16 years old and over	16 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
ALL PERSONS							
Total	6,798	601	1,484	1,418	1,255	904	1,136
Civilian labor force	3,679	299	936	939	867	531	107
Employed	3,443	247	862	890	825	513	106
Agriculture	30	4	1	6	8	4	7
Nonagriculture	3,413	243	861	884	817	509	99
Unemployed	236	51	74	49	42	18	1
Not in labor force	3,119	302	548	479	388	373	1,029
Reasons, percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household responsibilities	87.7	89.1	92.9	88.1	93.6	87.4	82.1
Unable	3.6	.....	.....	2.3	2.6	5.9	6.8
School and other	8.7	10.9	7.1	9.6	3.9	6.7	11.1
NEGRO							
Total	1,850	243	503	428	283	168	225
Civilian labor force	912	110	277	244	177	80	24
Employed	828	82	244	230	172	77	23
Agriculture	4	.....	.....	2	2	.....	.....
Nonagriculture	824	82	244	228	170	77	23
Unemployed	84	28	33	14	5	3	1
Not in labor force	938	133	226	184	106	88	201
Reasons, percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Household responsibilities	88.6	91.7	93.8	91.8	97.1	83.0	75.6
Unable	3.3	.....	.....	1.6	.....	10.2	9.5
School and other	8.2	8.3	6.2	6.5	2.9	6.8	14.9

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 36.—Labor Force Status of Female Family Heads, by Number of Own Children Under 18 and Race, March 1974

[Percent distribution]

Labor force status	Total female heads		Number of own children under 18						Total number of children (thousands)	Median [1] number of children
	Number (thousands)	Percent	None	1	2	3	4	5 or more		
ALL PERSONS										
Total	6,798	100.0	40.0	23.8	17.7	9.0	5.1	4.4	8,648	2.11
Employed	3,443	100.0	34.8	30.0	20.1	9.2	3.7	2.3	4,185	1.86
Unemployed	236	100.0	18.6	29.7	26.7	10.6	10.2	4.2	417	2.16
Not in labor force	3,119	100.0	47.4	16.7	14.3	8.7	6.3	6.6	4,046	2.46
NEGRO										
Total	1,850	100.0	30.3	21.5	18.6	12.4	8.1	9.1	3,168	2.45
Employed	828	100.0	28.2	29.3	20.9	10.9	5.3	5.4	1,231	2.07
Unemployed	84	100.0	8.3	28.6	20.2	16.7	15.5	10.7	193	2.54
Not in labor force	938	100.0	34.1	14.1	16.3	13.5	9.9	12.3	1,744	2.81

[1] Excludes families with no children.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 37.—Years of School Completed by the Civilian Labor Force, by Sex, Selected Dates, 1952–1974

[Persons 18 years and over for 1952–72, 16 years and over for 1972 forward]

Sex and date	Total (thousands)	Percent distribution								
		Total	Elementary		High school		College		School years not reported	Median school years completed
			Less than 5 years [1]	5 to 8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years or more		
WOMEN										
October 1952	19,088	100.0	5.4	25.4	18.2	33.8	8.8	7.7	0.6	12.0
March 1957 [2]	20,663	100.0	4.2	22.6	18.6	36.1	9.1	8.2	1.2	12.1
March 1959	21,556	100.0	3.5	21.1	18.8	37.6	9.6	7.9	1.4	12.2
March 1962	22,977	100.0	3.0	18.8	18.8	38.7	11.2	9.5	(3)	12.2
March 1964	24,326	100.0	2.4	17.8	18.8	40.9	10.6	9.5	(3)	12.3
March 1965	24,871	100.0	2.4	16.6	18.7	41.9	10.4	10.0	(3)	12.3
March 1966	25,602	100.0	2.1	15.7	18.4	43.0	11.0	9.9	(3)	12.3
March 1967	26,647	100.0	2.1	14.8	18.5	42.9	11.8	9.9	(3)	12.3
March 1968	27,846	100.0	1.9	14.1	17.6	43.7	12.3	10.5	(3)	12.4
March 1969	28,891	100.0	1.8	13.1	17.3	45.0	12.4	10.4	(3)	12.4
March 1970	30,064	100.0	1.5	12.2	16.9	45.5	13.2	10.7	(3)	12.4
March 1971	30,478	100.0	1.4	11.5	16.4	45.4	13.9	11.4	(3)	12.5
March 1972	31,663	100.0	1.4	10.5	16.3	46.3	13.7	11.8	(3)	12.5
March 1972 [2]	32,933	100.0	1.4	10.2	19.2	44.7	13.2	11.4	(3)	12.4
March 1973	33,905	100.0	1.4	9.2	18.6	45.2	13.8	12.0	(3)	12.5
March 1974	32,321	100.0	1.2	8.6	18.1	44.2	15.2	12.8	(3)	12.5
MEN										
October 1952	41,684	100.0	8.2	32.4	18.6	23.3	8.0	8.0	1.5	10.4
March 1957 [2]	43,721	100.0	7.0	28.8	19.3	25.8	8.2	9.4	1.5	11.1
March 1959	44,286	100.0	6.1	26.6	19.9	26.7	8.9	10.3	1.6	11.5
March 1962	45,011	100.0	5.4	24.2	19.6	28.7	10.4	11.7	(3)	12.0
March 1964	45,600	100.0	4.4	22.5	19.4	31.1	10.6	12.1	(3)	12.1
March 1965	46,258	100.0	4.4	21.3	19.4	32.0	10.5	12.4	(3)	12.2
March 1966	46,356	100.0	3.9	20.6	19.3	32.6	10.7	12.8	(3)	12.2
March 1967	46,571	100.0	3.7	19.7	18.8	32.9	11.7	13.2	(3)	12.2
March 1968	47,255	100.0	3.4	18.6	18.6	33.8	12.2	13.6	(3)	12.3
March 1969	47,862	100.0	3.2	17.6	18.1	34.4	12.6	13.9	(3)	12.3
March 1970	48,891	100.0	3.1	16.9	17.5	35.1	13.5	14.2	(3)	12.4
March 1971	49,439	100.0	2.7	15.8	16.9	35.7	14.0	14.9	(3)	12.4
March 1972	50,796	100.0	2.6	14.7	16.9	36.1	14.3	15.5	(3)	12.4
March 1972 [2]	52,477	100.0	2.5	14.5	19.2	35.0	13.8	15.0	(3)	12.4
March 1973	53,420	100.0	2.4	13.1	18.6	35.8	14.5	15.6	(3)	12.4
March 1974	54,312	100.0	2.3	12.4	18.0	36.0	14.9	16.4	(3)	12.5

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

[2] Data refer to persons 16 years and over (see head note).

[3] Data for persons whose educational attainment was not reported were distributed among the other categories.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 38.—Employment Status of the Population, by Years of School Completed and Sex, March 1964 and March 1974

[Thousands of persons]

Years of school completed and sex	Total 16 years and over [1]	Labor force									Not in labor force
		Total		Employed			Unemployed				
							Total		15 weeks or more		
		Number	Percent of population	Total	Agriculture	Nonagriculture	Number	Percent of labor force	Total	Percent of unemployed	
	March 1964										
WOMEN											
Total	61,883	24,326	39.3	22,836	541	22,295	1,490	6.1	398	26.7	37,557
No school years completed	828	98	11.8	90	5	85	8	(2)	4	(2)	730
Elementary:											
1 to 4 years	2,393	498	20.8	465	27	438	33	6.6	6	(2)	1,895
5 to 7 years	5,832	1,676	28.7	1,510	90	1,420	166	9.9	62	37.3	4,156
8 years	8,525	2,650	31.1	2,485	130	2,355	165	6.2	42	25.5	5,875
High school:											
1 to 3 years	11,907	4,565	38.3	4,177	117	4,060	388	8.5	94	24.2	7,342
4 years	22,294	9,954	44.6	9,396	121	9,275	558	5.6	147	26.3	12,340
College:											
1 to 3 years	6,095	2,573	42.2	2,433	46	2,392	135	5.2	27	20.0	3,522
4 years	3,023	1,601	53.0	1,576	5	1,571	25	1.6	8	(2)	1,422
5 years or more	986	711	72.1	699	.....	699	12	1.7	8	(2)	275
Median school years completed	12.1	12.3	.....	12.3	9.5	12.3	11.9	.....	11.7	.....	11.5
MEN											
Total	55,118	45,600	82.7	43,229	3,166	40,063	2,371	5.2	814	34.3	9,518
No school years completed	928	328	35.3	285	86	199	43	13.1	9	(2)	600
Elementary:											
1 to 4 years	2,836	1,667	58.8	1,522	332	1,190	145	8.7	61	42.1	1,169
5 to 7 years	5,706	4,087	71.6	3,767	567	3,200	320	7.8	113	35.3	1,619
8 years	8,063	6,179	76.6	5,750	787	4,963	429	6.9	168	39.2	1,884
High school:											
1 to 3 years	10,166	8,851	87.1	8,268	514	7,754	583	6.6	221	37.9	1,315
4 years	15,514	14,169	91.3	13,581	653	12,928	588	4.1	197	33.6	1,345
College:											
1 to 3 years	5,956	4,812	80.8	4,630	127	4,503	182	3.8	30	16.5	1,144
4 years	3,358	3,103	92.4	3,048	56	2,992	55	1.8	12	(2)	255
5 years or more	2,591	2,404	92.8	2,378	44	2,334	26	1.1	3	(2)	187
Median school years completed	12.0	12.1	.....	12.1	8.8	12.2	10.3	.....	9.8	.....	8.7

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 38.—Employment Status of the Population, by Years of School Completed and Sex, March 1964 and March 1974—Continued

Years of school completed and sex	Total 16 years and over [1]	Labor force: Total: Number	Labor force: Total: Percent of population	Labor force: Employed: Total	Labor force: Employed: Agriculture	Labor force: Employed: Nonagriculture	Labor force: Unemployed: Total: Number	Labor force: Unemployed: Total: Percent of labor force	Labor force: Unemployed: 15 weeks or more: Total	Labor force: Unemployed: 15 weeks or more: Percent of unemployed	Not in labor force
March 1974											
WOMEN											
Total	78,112	35,321	45.2	33,200	532	32,668	2,121	6.0	376	17.7	42,791
No school years completed	691	83	12.0	76			7	8.4			608
Elementary:											
1 to 4 years	1,864	324	17.4	309	69	1,430	15	4.7	18	16.7	1,540
5 to 7 years	4,783	1,200	25.1	1,114			86	7.1			3,583
8 years	6,990	1,821	26.1	1,688	75	1,613	133	7.3	44	33.1	5,169
High school:											
1 to 3 years	16,204	6,392	39.4	5,713	87	5,626	679	10.6	95	14.0	9,812
4 years	30,415	15,605	51.3	14,760	222	14,538	845	5.4	149	17.6	14,810
College:											
1 to 3 years	10,053	5,381	53.5	5,129	48	5,081	252	4.7	45	17.9	4,672
4 years	4,977	3,030	60.9	2,948	31	4,380	82	2.7	26	25.0	1,947
5 years or more	2,135	1,485	69.6	1,463			22	1.5			650
Median school years completed	12.3	12.5	.....	12.5	12.2	12.5	12.2	.....	12.2	.....	12.0
MEN											
Total	69,704	54,312	77.9	51,678	2,765	48,913	2,634	4.8	624	23.7	15,392
No school years completed	629	216	34.4	202			14	6.3			413
Elementary:											
1 to 4 years	2,098	1,009	48.1	960	570	3,162	49	4.9	53	25.1	1,089
5 to 7 years	4,484	2,718	60.6	2,570			148	5.4			1,766
8 years	6,614	4,026	60.8	3,788	461	3,327	238	5.9	58	24.4	2,588
High school:											
1 to 3 years	13,902	9,791	70.4	8,916	529	8,387	875	8.9	207	23.7	4,111
4 years	22,226	19,527	87.8	18,688	813	17,875	839	4.3	188	22.4	2,699
College:											
1 to 3 years	9,954	8,112	81.5	7,799	230	7,569	313	3.8	78	24.9	1,842
4 years	5,490	4,943	90.0	4,837	162	8,593	106	2.1	40	25.3	547
5 years or more	4,307	3,970	92.2	3,918			52	1.3			337
Median school years completed	12.3	12.5	.....	12.5	11.0	12.5	12.0	.....	11.9	.....	10.3

[1] Data for March 1964 refer to persons 18 years and over.
[2] Percent not shown where base is less than 100,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 39.—Labor Force Participation Rates of the Population, by Age, Sex, and Years of School Completed, March 1974

Years of school completed and sex	Percent of population in labor force										
	Total, 16 years old and over	16 to 19 years			20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 years and over		
		Total	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years					Total	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
WOMEN											
Total	45.2	45.4	36.0	55.1	61.8	52.6	54.1	54.5	23.6	42.0	8.2
Elementary:											
Less than 5 years [1]	15.9	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	30.3	30.4	29.8	9.8	26.1	4.1
5 to 7 years	25.1	12.7	7.8	18.3	37.8	37.8	40.9	43.2	15.6	34.5	6.0
8 years	26.1	26.2	25.4	29.2	42.2	38.5	44.2	46.1	16.7	34.4	6.9
High school:											
1 to 3 years	39.4	38.8	36.8	45.4	41.2	44.5	52.3	48.7	24.2	37.6	10.2
4 years	51.3	62.1	45.5	63.0	62.8	50.2	55.0	58.0	31.2	46.3	9.9
College:											
1 to 3 years	53.5	51.6	(2)	51.2	64.0	56.5	55.9	58.4	30.7	50.0	11.5
4 years	60.9	(2)	.....	(2)	85.8	64.9	59.4	63.0	32.5	54.1	9.7
5 years or more	69.6	(2)	.....	.....	85.0	77.8	75.2	80.8	41.0	64.9	14.7
MEN											
Total	77.9	55.4	44.4	67.8	83.4	95.4	96.2	92.5	51.1	78.5	22.0
Elementary:											
Less than 5 years [1]	44.9	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	93.6	81.6	73.7	26.9	57.1	12.4
5 to 7 years	60.6	46.8	35.4	(2)	94.1	91.5	89.1	85.1	39.5	74.0	17.1
8 years	60.8	46.6	36.1	86.8	89.2	92.6	92.1	89.4	42.0	73.3	18.7
High school:											
1 to 3 years	70.4	50.4	45.3	64.3	89.7	96.2	95.1	91.9	55.1	78.1	23.2
4 years	87.8	73.2	(2)	73.3	92.9	96.8	97.5	94.2	62.9	83.1	25.5
College:											
1 to 3 years	81.5	52.1	(2)	52.5	76.2	93.6	97.3	94.2	63.6	84.6	30.8
4 years	90.0	(2)	.....	(2)	88.2	96.4	99.2	97.3	60.8	82.6	35.9
5 years or more	92.2	(2)	.....	(2)	67.6	95.9	98.8	98.7	74.4	92.2	48.0

[1] Includes persons reporting no school years completed.

[2] Percent not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 40.—Number of Children Under 18 Years Old, Median Family Income in 1973, Type of Family, Labor Force Status of Parents, and Race, March 1974

[Numbers in thousands]

Type of family and labor force status of parents	All children		White		Negro	
	Number	Median family income in 1973	Number	Median family income in 1973	Number	Median family income in 1973
Total children [1]	63,542	$12,795	54,504	$13,485	8,068	$7,365
Mother in labor force	26,768	13,762	22,292	14,470	4,028	9,673
Husband-wife families	54,154	13,909	48,591	14,225	4,743	10,446
Mother in labor force	22,165	15,000+	19,168	15,000+	2,603	12,667
Mother not in labor force	31,989	13,085	29,423	13,428	2,140	8,135
Father employed	50,624	14,226	45,798	14,495	4,097	11,182
Mother in labor force	20,820	15,000+	18,107	15,000+	2,360	13,012
Mother not in labor force	29,804	13,408	27,691	13,682	1,737	8,726
Father unemployed	1,482	10,285	1,166	11,110	283	7,571
Mother in labor force	588	11,818	465	12,199	116	8,688
Mother not in labor force	894	9,127	701	10,050	167	7,191
Father not in labor force	2,048	7,327	1,627	7,856	363	5,603
Mother in labor force	757	9,148	596	9,495	127	8,187
Mother not in labor force	1,291	6,060	1,031	6,471	236	4,662
Female family head	8,648	4,729	5,339	5,236	3,168	4,227
Mother in labor force	4,603	6,193	3,124	6,734	1,425	5,058
Employed	4,186	6,422	2,901	6,899	1,232	5,397
Unemployed	417	3,678	223	4,057	193	3,419
Mother not in labor force	4,045	3,758	2,215	3,791	1,743	3,779
Other male family head	740	11,867	574	12,379	157	9,200

[1] See footnote 1, table 33.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

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Table 41.—WOMEN EMPLOYED IN THE SKILLED TRADES, BY DETAILED TRADE, 1960 AND 1970

Trade [1]	Number of women employed			Women as percent of total	
	1960 [2]	1970	Change, 1960–70	1960	1970
Total	277,140	494,871	217,731	3.1	5.0
Automobile accessories installers		297	297		4.4
Bakers	20,283	32,665	12,382	18.0	29.8
Blacksmiths	101	249	148	.5	2.4
Blue-collar worker supervisor, n.e.c.	77,728	127,751	50,023	7.2	8.0
Construction	206	1,608	1,402	.2	1.1
Durable manufacturing	14,724	25,539	10,815	4.1	4.6
Nondurable manufacturing, including not specified	40,882	52,193	11,311	13.9	14.4
Transportation, communications, and other public utilities	2,480	5,676	3,196	1.2	3.7
All other industries	19,436	42,735	23,299	9.1	11.8
Boilermakers	41	371	330	.2	1.3
Bookbinders	16,513	19,461	2,948	57.9	57.1
Brickmasons and stonemasons	722	2,049	1,327	.5	1.3
Bulldozer operators		1,151	1,151		1.3
Cabinetmakers	891	3,429	2,538	1.3	5.1
Carpenters	3,312	11,059	7,747	.4	1.3
Carpet installers		754	754		1.7
Cement and concrete finishers	100	908	808	.2	1.4
Compositors and typesetters	15,494	23,962	8,468	8.2	15.0
Crane, derrick, and hoist operators	656	1,952	1,296	.5	1.3
Decorators and window dressers	23,566	40,408	16,852	46.3	57.6
Dental laboratory technicians	641	6,057	5,416	4.3	22.7
Electricians	2,483	8,646	6,163	.7	1.8
Electric power and cable installers	1,648	1,457	−191	2.1	1.4
Electrotypers and stereotypers	72	283	211	.8	4.0
Engravers, except photoengravers	1,948	2,333	385	17.3	26.6
Excavating, grading, road machine operators except bulldozer operators	688	2,513	1,825	.4	1.1
Floor layers, except tile setters	882	364	−518	4.9	1.7
Forge and hammer operators	769	724	−45	6.4	4.7
Furniture and wood finishers	768	3,600	2,832	3.5	16.9
Furriers	1,936	461	[3] −1,475	40.4	17.3
Glaziers	227	783	556	1.3	3.1
Heat treaters, annealers, and temperers	293	598	305	1.4	2.9
Inspectors, scalers, and graders, log and lumber	798	1,877	1,079	3.9	11.0
Inspectors, n.e.c.	5,670	8,865	3,195	5.8	7.5
Construction	100	334	234	.7	1.5
Railroads and railway express service	76	247	171	.3	1.0
Jewelers and watchmakers	2,239	4,285	2,046	6.0	11.5
Job and die setters, metal	322	2,221	1,899	.6	2.6
Locomotive engineers	85	396	311	.1	.8
Locomotive firemen	104	151	47	.3	1.2

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 41.—Women Employed in the Skilled Trades, by Detailed Trade, 1960 and 1970—Continued

Trade [1]	Number of women employed			Women as percent of total	
	1960 [2]	1970	Change, 1960–70	1960	1970
Machinists	6,685	11,787	5,102	1.3	3.1
Mechanics and repairers	18,329	49,349	31,020	.9	2.0
Air conditioning, heating, and refrigeration	125	1,065	940	.2	.9
Aircraft	1,668	4,013	2,345	1.5	2.9
Automobile body repairers		1,332	1,332		1.2
Automobile mechanics	2,270	11,130	8,860	.4	1.4
Data processing machine repairers		864	864		2.7
Farm implement		420	420		1.2
Heavy equipment mechanics, including diesel	3,345	10,768	7,423	1.2	1.8
Household appliance and accessory installers and mechanics		2,550	2,550		2.1
Loom fixers	208	437	229	.9	2.1
Office machine	279	688	409	.9	1.7
Radio and television	1,688	5,032	3,344	1.7	3.7
Railroad and car shop	332	510	178	.6	.9
Other	8,414	10,540	2,126	1.2	4.2
Millers, grain, flour, and feed	64	161	97	.7	2.3
Millwrights	80	903	823	.1	1.2
Molders, metal	1,452	5,757	4,305	2.9	10.6
Motion picture projectionists	390	670	280	2.2	4.2
Opticians and lens grinders and polishers	3,045	6,121	3,076	15.0	22.3
Painters, construction and maintenance	6,449	13,386	6,937	1.9	4.1
Paperhangers	1,455	1,111	[3] −344	6.0	10.8
Pattern and model makers, except paper	647	1,858	1,211	1.6	4.8
Photoengravers and lithographers	2,847	3,851	1,004	10.4	11.8
Piano and organ tuners and repairers	153	330	177	2.5	4.8
Plasterers	158	435	277	.3	1.5
Plumbers and pipe fitters	952	4,110	3,158	.3	1.1
Power station operators	1,375	557	[3] −818	5.1	3.0
Printing press operators	4,848	13,374	8,526	5.8	8.5
Rollers and finishers, metal	802	1,264	462	4.2	6.4
Roofers and slaters	107	749	642	.2	1.3
Sheetmetal workers and tinsmiths	1,530	2,902	1,372	1.1	1.9
Shipfitters		123	123		1.2
Shoe repairers	2,759	6,359	3,600	6.7	20.3
Sign painters and letterers	1,286	1,614	328	4.6	5.5
Stationary engineers	1,563	2,472	909	.5	1.4
Stone cutters and stone carvers	132	445	313	2.0	7.0
Structural metal workers	909	883	−26	1.5	1.2
Tailors	21,728	21,265	[3] −463	26.5	31.4
Telephone installers and repairers	3,018	8,289	5,271	2.0	3.5
Telephone line installers and repairers	824	762	−62	2.0	1.5
Tile setters		378	378		1.2
Tool and die makers	1,128	4,197	3,069	.6	2.1
Upholsterers	5,668	9,980	4,312	9.4	16.0
Craft and kindred workers, n.e.c	5,777	7,339	1,562	6.7	8.5

[1] Some of the occupational titles that appear in this table are recent modifications of older titles which denoted or connoted sex stereotyping. The new titles were accomplished by a subcommittee of the Interagency Committee on Occupation Classification, under the auspices of the Office of Management and Budget. (See "Removal of Sex Stereotyping in Census Occupational Classification," Monthly Labor Review, January 1974, pp. 67–68.)

[2] Adjusted to 1970 occupation classifications. See John A. Priebe, Joan Heinkel, and Stanley Green, 1970 Occupation and Industry Classification Systems in Terms of Their 1960 Occupation and Industry Elements, Technical Paper 26 (Bureau of the Census, 1972).

[3] Also showed a decline in total employment.

Source: 1970 Census of Population, Detailed Characteristics, U.S. Summary, Final Report PC(1)–D1 (Bureau of the Census), table 211.

Table 42.—Membership of Women in National Unions and Employee Associations, Selected Years, 1952–1972

Year	Number of women members (thousands)	Percent of total membership
Unions and associations:		
1970	5,398	23.9
1972	5,736	24.9
Unions:		
1952	3,030	18.1
1954	2,950	16.6
1956	3,400	18.6
1958	3,274	18.2
1960	3,304	18.3
1962	3,272	18.6
1964	3,413	19.0
1966	3,689	19.3
1968	3,940	19.5
1970	4,282	20.7
1972	4,524	21.7

Source: Directory of National Unions and Employee Associations, 1973, Bulletin 1813 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1974).

Table 43.—Civilian Labor Force Participation and Union Membership of Women in the United States, 1952–1972

[Numbers in millions]

Year	Civilian labor force		Membership		Women as a percent of total civilian labor force	Women membership as a percent of—	
	Total	Women	Total	Women		All women in labor force	Total union membership in the United States
			Unions and associations [1]				
1970	82.7	31.5	21.1	5.0	38.1	16.0	23.9
1972	86.5	33.3	21.5	5.3	38.5	16.0	24.9
			Unions				
1952	62.1	19.3	16.0	2.9	31.0	15.1	18.1
1954	63.6	19.7	16.7	2.8	30.9	14.1	16.6
1956	66.6	21.5	17.2	3.2	32.2	14.9	18.5
1958	67.6	22.1	16.8	3.1	32.7	13.8	18.2
1960	69.6	23.2	16.9	3.1	33.4	13.3	18.3
1962	70.6	24.0	16.4	3.1	34.0	12.8	18.6
1964	73.1	25.4	16.7	3.2	34.8	12.5	19.1
1966	75.8	27.3	17.8	3.4	36.0	12.6	19.3
1968	78.7	29.2	18.8	3.7	37.1	12.5	19.5
1970	82.7	31.5	19.2	4.0	38.1	12.6	20.7
1972	86.5	33.3	19.3	4.2	38.5	12.6	21.7
Change—unions:							
1952–72:							
Number	24.4	14.0	3.3	1.3			
Percent	39.3	72.7	20.4	44.1			
1952–62:							
Number	8.5	4.7	.4	.2			
Percent	13.6	24.6	2.8	5.6			
1962–72:							
Number	15.9	9.3	2.8	1.1			
Percent	22.6	38.6	17.1	36.5			

[1] Associations were first surveyed in 1970. That survey covered 23 associations while the 1972 study covered 35. The number of unions covered in 1952 was 215; in 1962, 181; in 1970, 185; and in 1972, 177.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Women's Participation in Labor Organizations," *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1974. Based on data from the Directory of National Unions and Employee Associations, 1973, Bulletin 1813.

Table 44.—WOMEN IN UNIONS AND ASSOCIATIONS WITH 50,000 WOMEN MEMBERS OR MORE, 1952, 1962, 1970, AND 1972

[Numbers in thousands]

Union	Women membership							
	1952		1962		1970		1972	
	Number of women members	Percent of total membership	Number of women members	Percent of total membership	Number of women members	Percent of total membership	Number of women members	Percent of total membership
Total, all unions	3,000	17.9	3,272	18.6	4,282	20.7	4,524	21.7
Total, selected unions	1,862	21.0	2,592	26.1	3,475	27.7	3,674	28.9
Total, all unions and associations					5,398	23.9	5,736	24.9
Total, selected unions and associations					4,457	31.8	4,646	32.6
AFL–CIO:								
Bakery workers [1]	60.2	35.0	(2)	(2)	60.7	40.0	51.0	35.0
Clothing Workers	261.8	68.0	282.0	75.0	289.5	75.0	273.8	75.0
Communications Workers	(2)	(2)	139.3	50.0	231.9	55.0	230.5	52.0
Electrical Workers (IUE)	(2)	(2)	98.2	33.3	105.0	35.0	116.0	40.0
Electrical Workers (IBEW)	150.0	30.0	237.9	30.0	276.5	30.0	287.0	30.0
Government Employees (AFGE)	(2)	(2)	26.5	25.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Hotel and Restaurant Employees	(2)	(2)	200.3	45.0	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Ladies' Garment Workers	292.5	75.0	330.8	75.0	353.9	80.0	342.4	80.0
Machinists	(2)	(2)	86.8	10.0	100.4	11.6	106.1	14.0
Meat Cutters [3]	59.3	18.1	64.2	14.9	61.7	12.5	92.5	17.5
Office Employees	(2)	(2)	40.0	66.7	57.8	70.0	52.8	64.0
Paperworkers [4]	35.7	13.6	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Postal Workers [5]	(2)	(2)	15.8	7.8	59.0	20.0	107.4	45.0
Railway Clerks	36.0	12.0	48.0	16.0	110.0	40.0	(2)	(2)
Retail Clerks	125.0	50.0	182.0	50.0	(2)	(2)	316.6	50.0
Retail, Wholesale and Department Store Union	14.6	15.1	63.7	40.0	70.0	40.0	79.1	40.0
Rubber Workers	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Service Employees	55.5	30.0	82.4	28.0	152.3	35.0	145.2	30.0
State, County and Municipal Employees	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	146.7	33.0	195.7	37.0
Steelworkers	80.0	7.3	(2)	(2)	120.0	10.0	175.0	12.5
Teachers	37.5	75.0	42.5	60.0	88.3	43.0	129.2	52.0
Textile Workers Union of America	(2)	(2)	73.2	40.0	71.2	40.0	69.6	40.0
Unaffiliated:								
Auto Workers [6]	118.4	10.0	139.6	13.0	193.1	13.0	195.1	14.0
Teamsters	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	255.0	13.9	(2)	(2)
Employee Associations:								
Civil Service (NYS)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	76.0	40.0	(2)	(2)
Education Association	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	726.1	66.0	736.7	63.2
Nurses Association	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)

[1] Includes the Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union of America (Ind.) and the American Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union (AFL–CIO).

[2] Figure not reported to the Bureau or not available.

[3] Includes Packinghouse Workers (AFL–CIO) in 1952 and 1962.

[4] Includes Papermakers (AFL), Paperworkers (CIO) and Pulp, Sulphite Workers (AFL) in 1952; the Papermakers and Paperworkers (AFL–CIO) and Pulp, Sulphite Workers (AFL–CIO) in 1962 and 1970; and the United Paperworkers (AFL–CIO) in 1972.

[5] Includes the National Postal Union (Ind.), Postal Clerks (AFL–CIO), Special Delivery Messengers (AFL–CIO), General Services Maintenance Employees (AFL–CIO), Motor Vehicle Employees (AFL–CIO), and Postal Workers Union (AFL–CIO). On July 1, 1971, these five unions merged to form the American Postal Workers Union (AFL–CIO).

[6] Affiliated with the CIO in 1952 and with the AFL–CIO in 1962.

NOTE.—Figures include members in areas outside the United States, primarily in Canada.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Women's Participation in Labor Organizations," *Monthly Labor Review*, October 1974. Based on data from the Directory of National Unions and Employee Associations, 1972, Bulletin 1813.

Table 43.—Percentage Distribution of Full-time Workers in Private Industry, by Retirement Plan Status and by Age, April 1972

Age	Percentage distribution by coverage status					Percentage distribution by age				
	Total percent	Covered	Not covered	Don't know	No response	Total percent	Covered	Not covered	Don't know	No response
Both sexes										
Total	100	47	46	4	4	100	100	100	100	100
Under 25 years	100	30	58	8	4	18	12	23	40	22
25 to 29 years	100	47	45	5	3	14	14	13	17	12
30 to 34 years	100	51	43	4	3	11	12	11	11	9
35 to 39 years	100	53	42	3	2	10	11	9	7	6
40 to 44 years	100	54	40	3	4	10	12	9	7	10
45 to 49 years	100	55	39	2	3	11	13	9	7	10
50 to 54 years	100	56	39	1	4	10	12	9	4	11
55 to 59 years	100	51	43	2	4	8	9	8	4	10
60 years and over	100	39	55	1	5	7	6	9	2	10
Median age						38.4	40.6	36.6	27.8	40.8
Men										
Total	100	52	41	4	3	100	100	100	100	100
Under 25 years	100	33	54	9	5	16	10	21	40	22
25 to 29 years	100	51	42	5	3	14	14	15	18	11
30 to 34 years	100	55	39	4	3	12	13	12	13	10
35 to 39 years	100	58	38	2	2	11	12	10	7	5
40 to 44 years	100	59	35	2	4	11	12	9	7	11
45 to 49 years	100	61	34	2	3	11	13	9	6	10
50 to 54 years	100	62	33	2	3	10	12	8	4	9
55 to 59 years	100	56	38	1	4	8	9	8	3	11
60 years and over	100	44	50	1	5	7	6	9	2	11
Median age						38.6	40.6	36.4	27.7	40.6
Women										
Total	100	36	56	4	4	100	100	100	100	100
Under 25 years	100	26	63	8	3	23	17	26	41	21
25 to 29 years	100	37	54	5	4	12	12	12	15	13
30 to 34 years	100	39	54	4	2	9	10	9	9	6
35 to 39 years	100	38	54	4	3	8	9	8	8	8
40 to 44 years	100	41	52	4	3	10	11	9	9	9
45 to 49 years	100	42	51	3	3	11	12	10	8	10
50 to 54 years	100	43	51	1	5	11	13	10	3	14
55 to 59 years	100	40	53	3	5	9	9	8	5	10
60 years and over	100	28	66	1	6	7	6	8	2	10
Median age						38.2	40.8	37.0	28.0	41.3

Note.—Sums of individual items may not equal totals because of rounding.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Coverage and Vesting of Full-Time Employees Under Private Retirement Plans: Findings from the April 1973 Survey," BLS Report No. 423, September 1973.

Table 46.—Percentage Distribution of Full-Time Workers in Private Industry, by Retirement Plan Status and by Industry Division, April 1972

Industry division	Percentage distribution by coverage status					Percentage distribution by industry division				
	Total percent	Covered	Not covered	Don't know	No response	Total percent	Covered	Not covered	Don't know	No response
Both sexes										
Total [1]	100	47	46	4	4	100	100	100	100	100
Mining	100	72	24	2	2	1	2	1	1	1
Construction	100	34	57	3	6	7	5	9	5	13
Manufacturing:										
Durable goods	100	63	30	4	2	22	30	15	26	14
Nondurable goods	100	57	36	5	2	15	18	12	20	9
Transportation	100	45	47	3	6	5	4	5	3	8
Communications and public utilities	100	82	13	3	2	4	6	1	2	2
Trade:										
Wholesale	100	48	46	3	3	5	5	5	4	5
Retail	100	31	61	4	5	15	10	20	15	20
Finance, insurance, and real estate	100	52	41	4	3	7	8	7	7	6
Services	100	29	63	4	4	17	11	24	16	21
Men										
Total [1]	100	52	41	4	3	100	100	100	100	100
Mining	100	73	22	3	2	2	2	1	1	1
Construction	100	35	56	3	7	10	7	13	8	20
Manufacturing:										
Durable goods	100	66	28	4	2	26	33	18	30	15
Nondurable goods	100	66	28	5	2	14	18	10	20	7
Transportation	100	46	45	3	6	6	5	7	5	11
Communications and public utilities	100	83	11	3	2	4	6	1	3	3
Trade:										
Wholesale	100	51	42	3	3	6	6	7	5	6
Retail	100	34	57	4	5	14	9	19	16	18
Finance, insurance, and real estate	100	60	35	2	3	5	6	5	3	4
Services	100	36	58	3	4	11	8	16	9	21
Women										
Total [1]	100	36	56	4	4	100	100	100	100	100
Mining	100	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	1	[2]	.....	.....
Construction	100	[2]	[2]	[2]	[2]	1	1	1	.....	.....
Manufacturing:										
Durable goods	100	52	39	6	4	14	20	10	20	13
Nondurable goods	100	43	50	5	2	17	20	15	19	11
Transportation	100	34	62	1	3	2	2	2	[3]	1
Communications and public utilities	100	79	17	1	2	4	8	1	1	2
Trade:										
Wholesale	100	33	62	2	3	3	3	4	1	3
Retail	100	25	67	3	5	18	12	21	14	23
Finance, insurance, and real estate	100	45	47	5	3	12	14	10	14	9
Services	100	24	67	4	5	30	20	36	29	37

[1] Total percentage distribution by coverage status includes workers in agriculture (less than 0.5 percent of each sex was covered by a retirement plan), not shown separately.

[2] Not calculated where base was less than 200,000.

[3] Less than 0.5 percent.

Note.—Sums of individual items may not equal totals because of rounding.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Coverage and Vesting of Full-Time Employees Under Private Retirement Plans: Findings from the April 1972 Survey," BLS Report No. 423, September 1973.

Table 47.—Percentage Distribution of Full-Time Workers in Private Industry, by Retirement Plan Status and by Annual Wage or Salary Income During 1971, April 1972

Annual wage or salary income in 1971	Percentage distribution by coverage status					Percentage distribution by wage or salary income				
	Total percent	Covered	Not covered	Don't know	No response	Total percent	Covered	Not covered	Don't know	No response
Both sexes										
Total [1]	100	47	46	4	4	100	100	100	100	(2)
$1 to $4,999	100	30	66	4	1	23	12	37	36	(2)
$5,000 to $9,999	100	58	39	3	(3)	46	47	43	53	(2)
$10,000 to $14,999	100	73	26	1	(3)	21	28	13	8	(2)
$15,000 to $19,999	100	76	24	(3)	.....	6	9	4	1	(2)
$20,000 to $24,999	100	67	32	2	.....	2	2	1	1	(2)
$25,000 or more	100	71	28	(3)	.....	2	3	1	(3)	(2)
Median income						$7,700	$9,100	$6,100	$5,900	(2)
Men										
Total [1]	100	42	41	4	3	100	100	100	100	(2)
$1 to $4,999	100	26	69	4	1	12	5	22	23	(2)
$5,000 to $9,999	100	58	39	3	(3)	45	43	48	60	(2)
$10,000 to $14,999	100	74	25	1	(3)	29	35	20	13	(2)
$15,000 to $19,999	100	76	24	(3)	.....	9	11	6	1	(2)
$20,000 to $24,999	100	67	31	2	.....	3	3	2	2	(2)
$25,000 or more	100	72	28	1	.....	3	4	2	1	(2)
Median income						$9,300	$10,200	$7,700	$7,000	(2)
Women										
Total [1]	100	36	56	4	4	100	100	100	100	(2)
$1 to $4,999	100	31	65	4	(3)	49	34	61	57	(2)
$5,000 to $9,999	100	58	39	3	(3)	46	60	35	41	(2)
$10,000 or more	100	60	39	1	.....	5	6	4	2	(2)
Median income						$5,100	$5,800	$4,400	$4,800	(2)

[1] Total percentage distribution by coverage status relates to all workers reporting in the survey. The remainder of the table excludes persons with less than 1 year of employment on their current job, since the wage and salary income is not related to current job. Also excludes persons who had no earnings in 1971 as well as those for which a match to the March CPS record could not be made.

[2] Not calculated where base was less than 200,000.

[3] Less than 0.5 percent.

Note.—Sums of individual items may not equal totals because of rounding.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Coverage and Vesting of Full-Time Employees Under Private Retirement Plans: Findings from the April 1972 Survey," BLS Report No. 423, September 1973.

Table 48.—Percent of Workers Vested in Retirement Plans, by Age, Sex, and by Length of Employment, April 1972

Age	Length of employment on present job				
	Total	Less than 10 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 years or more
Both sexes					
Total	32	22	36	47	51
Under 30 years	21	21	(1)		
30 to 39 years	27	19	37	47	(1)
40 to 49 years	38	23	38	48	51
50 years and over	42	28	32	46	51
Men					
Total	34	23	36	49	52
Under 30 years	23	22	(1)		
30 to 39 years	27	19	36	50	(1)
40 to 49 years	40	24	39	50	52
50 years and over	45	31	37	47	52
Women					
Total	26	19	34	39	43
Under 30 years	18	17	(1)		
30 to 39 years	24	17	(1)	(1)	(1)
40 to 49 years	30	22	37	(1)	43
50 years and over	33	23	25	44	43

[1] Not calculated where base was less than 200,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics: "Coverage and Vesting of Full-Time Employees Under Private Retirement Plans: Findings from the April 1972 Survey," BLS Report No. 423, September 1973.

Table 49.—Women Applicants in State Employment Service Active Files, by Major Occupational Category and Selected Occupational Group, June 30, 1974

Major occupational category and selected occupational group:	Number
Total	2,084,101
Professional, technical, and managerial occupations	168,377
Nursing	8,247
Medicine and health, n.e.c	20,613
Secondary school education	8,932
Primary school and kindergarten education	11,647
Education, n.e.c	9,172
Administrative specialties, n.e.c	9,070
Wholesale and retail trade management	5,201
Service industry management	6,001
Social and welfare work	13,658
Clerical and sales	785,978
Secretarial work	50,809
Stenography	7,424
Typing	7,365
Filing	14,479
Stenography, typing, filing, and related work, n.e.c	144,882
Bookkeeping	30,691
Cashiering	44,150
Teller service	5,612
Automatic data processing	16,450
Bookkeeping-machine work	5,145
Computing and account recording, n.e.c	106,145
Telephone work	16,488
Reception and information dispensing work	30,395
Saleswork, commodities, n.e.c	27,955
Sales clerking	38,039
Miscellaneous merchandising work, n.e.c	37,144
Service	546,256
Day work	18,367
Housework, domestic	40,885
Nursemaid work	20,915
Food and beverage service, except ship stewards	109,156
Bartending	6,155
Cooking, large hotels and restaurants	15,728
Cooking, small hotels and restaurants	12,346
Miscellaneous food and beverage preparation	7,362
Kitchen work, n.e.c	23,210
Maid and related service, hotels, restaurants, and related establishments	32,354
Beautician services	9,164
Attendant work, hospitals, morgues, and related health services	73,100
Miscellaneous personal services, n.e.c	13,002
Pressing service	11,402
Apparel and furnishings service, n.e.c	7,157
Cleaning and related services	17,117
Farming, fishing, forestry	20,576
Processing	55,594
Processing, food and related products, n.e.c	20,455
Casting and molding, n.e.c	5,960
Machine trades	64,198
Metal machining, n.e.c	8,404
Metal forming, n.e.c	5,721
Bench work	245,179
Metal unit assembling and adjusting, n.e.c	28,824
Assembly and repair of electronic components and accessories	18,545
Assembly and repair of electrical equipment, n.e.c	8,991
Fabrication and repair of products made from assorted material	8,993
Laying out, marking, cutting, and punching, n.e.c	5,604
Machine sewing, garment	37,260
Machine sewing, nongarment	24,059
Structural work	20,392
Transportation equipment assembling and related work	7,052
Miscellaneous	177,451
Packaging	58,796
Material moving and storing, n.e.c	6,979
Packaging and materials handling, n.e.c	13,033

Note.—Occupational classification is per the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. At least 5,000 women applicants were available for the selected occupations listed. Totals represent the entire number of applicants in the category.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS).

Table 50.—Employment Service Placements, by Sex and Hourly Wage Rates, Fiscal Years 1973 and 1974

[Percent distribution]

	Number placed	Median [1] hourly wage rates	Under $1.60	$1.60	$1.61 to $1.89	$1.90 to $2.19	$2.20 to $2.49	$2.50 to $2.79	$2.80 to $3.09	$3.10 to $3.39	$3.40 and over
Fiscal year 1974 [2]:											
Women	1,263,536	$1.99	9.3	14.8	18.0	27.2	10.9	8.9	4.2	2.3	4.5
Men	1,904,932	2.41	3.7	8.0	8.8	21.5	11.5	16.5	10.2	4.6	15.1
Fiscal year 1973 [2]:											
Women	1,152,910	1.82	12.5	21.1	22.5	19.5	8.4	6.7	3.1	1.7	4.4
Men	1,803,021	2.18	4.7	11.3	13.6	21.4	10.6	14.2	8.3	3.9	21.0

[1] The arithmetic mean, or average, wage rates for fiscal year 1974 are $2.35 for women, $2.53 for men; average wage rates are not available for fiscal year 1973.
[2] Fiscal year is from July through June.

Note.—Individuals may be placed more than once during a year, thus may be counted more than once.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS).

Table 51.—Total Employment Service Applicants and Individuals Placed, Fiscal Years 1973 and 1974

	Fiscal year 1974 [1]	Fiscal year 1973 [1]
Total applicants available in the Employment Service System	17,723,647	17,505,925
Women applicants available	7,775,892	7,511,852
Percent of total	43.9	42.9
Disadvantaged women applicants	2,544,278	1,949,551
Percent of total women	32.8	26.0
Individuals placed [2]:		
Women placed	1,248,233	1,118,523
As a percent of women applicants	16.1	14.9
As a percent of all placements	42.0	39.7
Men placed	1,720,575	1,698,222
As a percent of men applicants	17.3	17.0

[1] Fiscal year is from July through June.
[2] Nonagricultural placements lasting more than 3 days.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS).

Table 52.—Services to Women by the Employment Service, Selected Data [1]

[Percentage of unemployed job seekers using public employment agencies—1973: Total, 35.9; men, 33.5; and women, 38.3]

	In thousands—		
	Both sexes	Women	Percent women
Number of new applicants:			
1950	8,234.3	2,968.4	36.1
1974	11,905.4	5,286.0	44.4
Placements of nonagricultural applicants:			
1950	4,726.9	1,946.2	41.2
1974	4,913.4	2,014.5	41.0
Duration of job of individuals placed (1973):			
Total—Nonagricultural	3,172.0	1,299.9	41.0
Over 3 days	2,968.8	1,248.2	42.0
Over 150 days	2,432.2	1,027.3	42.2
Counseling services (ES) (1974):			
Counseled	991.5	463.9	47.3
Placed after counseling	235.3	102.5	43.6
Average wages paid per hour to ES applicants placed (1974):			
Total	$2.48	$2.42	.....
Minority	2.44	2.48	.....
Poor	2.27	2.11	.....
Veteran	2.76	3.01	.....

[1] Years refer to fiscal years, July through June.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Division of ES Data and Cost Analysis; and Employment and Training Administration, Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS).

Table 53.—Women Veterans—Married, Nonmarried, or Heads of Households—by Service Eras, as of June 30, 1973

[In thousands]

Marital and household status	Total women veterans	War veterans						Service only between Korean conflict and Vietnam era
		Total	Vietnam era, no Korean conflict	Korean and prior wars				
				Total	Korean conflict, no World War II	Total World War II	World War I and Spanish-American	
Total women veterans	542	485	91	394	74	305	15	57
Married	416	364	68	296	62	230	4	52
Nonmarried	126	121	23	98	12	75	11	5
Household heads	36	34	4	30	6	23	1	2

Source: Veterans Administration.

Table 54.—Selected Data for Women WIN (Work Incentive Program) Participants, Fiscal Years 1973 and 1974

	Fiscal year 1974 [1]	Fiscal year 1973 [1]
Total new participants	373,179	310,117
Number of women	271,408	230,012
Percent women	72.7	74.2
Enrolled in training	62,717	54,436
Began job entry	52,337	(2)
Completed job entry	9,645	6,488
Percent terminating [3]	10.3	10.2
Percent referred to supportive services	5.9	3.8

[1] Fiscal year is from July through June.

[2] Information not available.

[3] Women terminating from WIN for reasons other than getting a job and therefore no longer on welfare.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS).

Table 55.—Placements and Average Hourly Wages of WIN (Work Incentive Program) Participants, by Major Occupational Category and Sex, Fiscal Years 1973 and 1974

Major occupational category	Fiscal year 1974 [1]					Fiscal year 1973 [1]				
	Women			Men		Women			Men	
	Number	Percent of total	Average wage	Number	Average wage	Number	Percent of total	Average wage	Number	Average wage
All enrollees	95,345	67	$2.10	47,665	$2.78	65,288	65	$1.98	34,964	$2.55
Professional, technical, managerial	5,216	79	2.55	1,372	3.20	3,486	81	2.48	797	2.91
Clerical and sales	26,164	87	2.55	3,730	2.57	17,286	86	2.11	2,701	2.39
Service	33,097	81	1.87	8,014	2.41	23,888	80	1.79	5,881	2.21
Farming, fishing, forestry	664	16	1.96	3,441	2.30	392	13	1.86	2,687	2.08
Processing	3,652	54	2.22	3,118	2.98	2,319	53	2.02	2,043	2.71
Machine trades	3,985	41	2.26	5,732	2.94	2,571	37	2.14	4,380	2.77
Bench work	14,614	82	2.04	3,156	2.66	10,633	81	1.93	2,472	2.47
Structural work	1,489	15	2.83	8,290	3.25	1,059	15	2.49	6,126	2.95
Miscellaneous	6,464	37	2.20	10,812	2.76	3,654	32	2.06	7,877	2.52

[1] Fiscal year is from July through June.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS).

Table 56.—Placements and Average Hourly Wages After Termination From the Job Corps, by Major Occupational Category and Sex, Fiscal Years 1973 and 1974

Major occupational category	Fiscal year 1974 [1]					Fiscal year 1973 [1]				
	Women			Men		Women			Men	
	Number	Percent of total	Average wage	Number	Average wage	Number	Percent of total	Average wage	Number	Average wage
All enrollees	9,400	24	$2.01	30,300	$2.36	7,800	21	$1.88	29,900	$2.20
Professional, technical, managerial	510	51	2.45	500	1.98	300	48	2.43	340	2.14
Clerical and sales	2,970	68	2.29	1,390	2.13	2,170	61	2.11	1,390	2.04
Service	4,370	43	1.77	5,900	1.95	3,620	39	1.68	5,610	1.87
Farming, fishing, forestry	50	3	1.79	1,550	2.01	110	5	1.62	2,290	1.80
Processing	260	12	1.98	1,990	2.36	240	12	1.93	1,820	2.27
Machine trades	120	6	2.05	2,100	2.34	130	6	1.96	1,980	2.26
Bench work	730	40	2.01	1,090	2.34	820	46	1.90	980	2.10
Structural work	70	1	2.37	9,370	2.91	70	1	2.32	8,700	2.68
Miscellaneous	300	4	1.97	6,350	2.11	330	5	1.89	6,780	2.08
Occupation not reported	20	24	2.47	60	2.51	10	42	1.81	10	2.24

[1] Fiscal year is from July through June.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS).

Table 57.—Availability and Disqualification Provisions of Unemployment Benefits Related to Pregnancy, January 1, 1975

State	Claimant		Period of suspension for				Ineligible for any week of unemployment due to pregnancy (5 States)
			Voluntary leaving		Layoff		
	Disqualified (15 States)	Deemed unavailable (7 States)	Period before birth (21 States)	Period after birth (20 States)	Period before birth[a] (19 States)	Period after birth[a] (18 States)	
Alabama		(1)					
Arkansas			Date of separation.	30 days paid work.[1]	Same		
Colorado	X		Anytime	13 weeks work.[2 3]	30 days	13 weeks work.[2 3]	
Delaware	X		(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)
District of Columbia	X		6 weeks	6 weeks	Same		
Idaho	X		Anytime	Earns 8 times wba.[1]	12 weeks	Earns 8 times wba.[1]	
Illinois [5]		X	13 weeks		8 weeks		
Indiana		X	Anytime [6]	Earns 6 times wba.[6]			
Kansas		X	90 days	30 days	Same		
Maryland	X		Anytime physically unable to work				
Minnesota	X		Date of separation.[6]	6 weeks work.[6]			
Missouri	X		3 months	4 weeks	Same		
Montana	X		2 months.[4]	2 months [4]	Same		X[4]
Nevada	X		Anytime	Until proof of ability to work.	Same		X
New Jersey		X	4 weeks	4 weeks	Same		
Ohio	X		Date of separation.	Medical evidence of ability to work.[7]	Same		
Oregon		X[8]					
Rhode Island [5]			4 months	6 weeks	Same		
Tennessee	X		Date of separation.	21 days after able to work.	Same		
Texas [9]		X	3 months	6 weeks	Same		
Utah	X		12 weeks	6 weeks	Same		X
Washington	X		Anytime	(4)	(4)	(4)	
West Virginia	X		do	30 days' work.[6]	Anytime [6]	30 days' work.[6]	

[a] "Same" in columns indicates that period during which benefits are suspended is the same for layoffs as for voluntary quit.

[1] If leave of absence extends beyond tenth week, claimant is eligible only if she has given 3 weeks notice of desire to return to work and has not refused reinstatement to suitable work, *Alabama*; disqualification not applicable if claimant applies for reinstatement after leave of absence and is not reinstated, *Arkansas*; claimant may requalify within 6 weeks after childbirth if she has become main support of self or immediate family, *Idaho*.

[2] If claimant is sole support of child or invalid husband, is eligible for full award 30 days subsequent to termination of pregnancy, *Colorado*.

[3] In order to meet a 13-week requirement, weeks worked outside *Colorado* must be in covered employment but those worked in *Colorado* need not, *Colorado*.

[4] Disqualification not applicable for period shown if claimant can present evidence of ability to work, *Montana*; disqualification applicable for any week claimant is unable or unavailable for work because of pregnancy—doctor's certificate required to establish availability after childbirth, *Delaware*.

[5] Rebuttable presumption of inability to work during periods specified; in *Rhode Island* by regulation.

[6] Claimant subject to voluntary quit disqualification only if she fails to apply for or accept leave of absence under plan provided by separating employer, *Indiana*; only if she fails to take advantage of maternity rights provided by law, *Minnesota*. If laid off because of pregnancy and medical evidence of ability to work submitted, not more than 6 weeks prior to childbirth or 6 weeks after; if claimant voluntarily left and produces medical evidence of ability to work, not more than 6 weeks after childbirth, *West Virginia*.

[7] And work with former employer no longer available. If claimant has moved so that return with former employer is unreasonable because of distance, until she has earned the lesser of ½ her average weekly wage or $60.

[8] Disqualified for benefits for any period before or after birth during which the woman is precluded from working in her particular category of employment because of a Federal or State statute or administrative rule or regulation, *Washington*; presumed unable to work if unemployed because of disability including pregnancy, until Administrator determines claimant able to work, *Oregon*.

[9] No provision in law or regulation. However, policy of agency has been upheld by the U.S. Court of Appeal, 5th Circuit (*Schattman v. Texas Employment Commission*).

wba—Weekly Benefit Allowance.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Unemployment Insurance Service.

Table 58.—Availability and Disqualification Provisions of Unemployment Benefits Related to Marital Obligations, January 1, 1975

State	Disqualification if voluntarily left work to—			Deemed unavailable if left work to—			Benefits denied until—	
	Marry (10 States)	Move with spouse (6 States)	Perform marital, domestic, or filial obligations (11 States)	Marry (3 States)	Move with spouse (1 State)	Perform marital, domestic, or filial obligations (1 State)	Subsequently employed in bona fide work (4 States)	Had employment or earnings for time or amount specified (11 States)
California [1]	X	.....	X	.....	.....	.....	X	.....
Colorado	X	.....	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	[2]
Idaho [1]	X	X	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	8 times wba.[3]
Illinois	.....	.....	.....	X	X	X	.....	[2]
Kansas [4]	.....	.....	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	8 times wba.
Kentucky	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	X	.....
Mississippi	.....	.....	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	8 times wba.
Nevada [1]	X	X	X	.....	.....	.....	X	.....
New York	X	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	$200.[5]
Ohio	.....	.....	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	$60.[5]
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	X	.....	.....	X	.....
Oregon	X	X	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	[2]
Pennsylvania [1]	X	X	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	6 times wba.
Utah	X	X	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	6 times wba.
West Virginia	X	.....	X	.....	.....	.....	.....	30 days.[3]

[1] Not applicable if sole or major support of family at time of leaving and filing a claim, *California* and *Nevada*; if claimant becomes main support of self and family *Idaho*; if during a substantial part of the preceding 6 months prior to leaving or at time of filing for benefits was sole or major support of family and such work is not within a reasonable commuting distance, *Pennsylvania*.

[2] 13-26 weeks for leaving to marry, until worked 13 weeks in *Colorado* or in covered work outside *Colorado* if leaving for marital or domestic obligations, *Colorado*; if left work because of domestic circumstance, until such circumstances cease to exist. If left work to marry, duration of unemployment or until claimant becomes the sole support of self or family. If left work to move with member of family: (1) until circumstances which caused move cease to exist; (2) becomes sole support; (3) earns wages in covered work equal to 8 times weekly benefit allowance; (4) until separated from such member of family; or (5) until returned to locality left, *Illinois*.

[3] Must be in insured work, *Minnesota* and *West Virginia*; bona fide work, *Idaho*.

[4] By judicial interpretation, disqualification applicable only if claimant intended to withdraw from labor market (*Shelton* v. *Admr.*).

[5] Or until employed on not less than 3 days in each of 4 weeks, *New York*; or earns one-half average weekly wage, if less, *Ohio*.

[6] Wages equal to weekly benefit allowance in 1 week subsequent to week of disqualifying act.

wba—Weekly Benefit Allowance.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Unemployment Insurance Service.

Table 59.—Unemployment Benefit Allowances for Dependents, January 1, 1975

State	Weekly allowance per dependent	Limitation on weekly allowances	Minimum weekly benefit		Maximum weekly benefit		Full allowance for week of partial benefits	Maximum potential benefits	
			Basic benefit	Maximum allowance	Basic benefit	Maximum allowance		Without dependents	With dependents
Alaska	$10	Lesser of wba or $30	$18	$18	$90	$30	Yes	$2,520	[1] $3,360
Connecticut	$5	½ wba	15	7	92	46	Yes	2,392	3,588
District of Columbia	$1 [2]	$3 [2]	13	3	117	[2] 0	Yes	3,978	[2] 3,978
Illinois	$1 to $22 [3]	Schedule $1 to $45 [3]	10	[3] 0	60	[3] 45	No [4]	1,560	2,730
Indiana	$1 to $10 [3]	Schedule $1 to $40 [3]	30	[3] 0	60	[3] 40	No [4]	1,560	2,600
Maryland	$3	$12 [2]	10	12	89	[2] 0	Yes [5]	2,314	[2] 2,314
Massachusetts	$6	½ wba	14	10	90	45	Yes	2,700	4,050
Michigan	$1 to $12 [6]	Schedule $1 to $39 [6]	16	8	67	39	No [4]	1,742	2,756
Ohio	$1 to $10 [6]	$37 [6]	10	6–8	77	37	Yes	2,002	2,964
Pennsylvania	$5 [6]	$8	12	8	96	8	No	2,880	3,120
Rhode Island	$5	$20	12	20	87	20	Yes	2,262	[1] 2,782

[1] Assuming maximum weeks for total unemployment; weeks of partial unemployment could increase this amount because full allowance is paid for each week of partial unemployment.

[2] Same maximum weekly benefit allowance with or without dependent allowances. Claimants at lower weekly benefit allowance may have benefits increased by dependent allowances.

[3] Limited to claimants with high quarter wages in excess of $1,560.25 and 1–4 dependents, *Illinois* and to claimants with high quarter wages in excess of $1,500 and 1–4 dependents, *Indiana*.

[4] Dependent allowances considered as part of weekly benefit allowance.

[5] Not more that 26 payments for dependents may be made in any one benefit year.

[6] Benefits paid to claimants with dependents are determined by schedule according to the average weekly wage and dependency class, *Michigan* and *Ohio*. *Pennsylvania* provides $3 for one other dependent.

wba—Weekly Benefit Allowance.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Unemployment Insurance Service.

Table 60.—Earned Bachelor's Degrees Conferred on Women, 1970–1971

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred
All fields	846,110	367,687	100.0	43.5
Agriculture and natural resources	12,710	539	.1	4.2
Architecture and environmental design	5,578	667	.2	12.0
Area studies	2,497	1,322	.4	52.9
Biological sciences	36,033	10,571	2.9	29.3
Business and management	116,709	10,803	2.9	9.3
Communications	10,802	3,813	1.0	35.3
Computer and information sciences	2,388	324	.1	13.6
Education	177,638	132,236	36.0	74.4
Engineering	50,357	403	.1	.8
Fine and applied arts	30,447	18,169	4.9	59.7
Foreign languages	20,433	15,285	4.2	74.8
Health professions	25,484	19,680	5.4	77.2
Home economics	11,271	10,970	3.0	97.3
Law	545	27	(1)	5.0
Letters	73,398	44,782	12.2	61.0
Library science	1,013	932	.3	92.0
Mathematics	24,918	9,494	2.6	38.1
Military sciences	357	1	(1)	.3
Physical sciences	21,549	3,014	.8	14.0
Psychology	38,154	17,037	4.6	44.7
Public affairs and services	9,303	4,566	1.2	49.1
Social sciences	156,698	57,918	15.8	37.0
Theology	3,744	1,017	.3	27.2
Interdisciplinary studies	14,084	4,117	1.1	29.2

[1] Less than 0.05 percent.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Educational Statistics.

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Table 60a.—Earned Master's Degrees Conferred on Women, 1970–1971

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all master's degrees conferred
All fields	231,486	92,896	100.0	40.1
Agriculture and natural resources	2,458	144	.2	5.9
Architecture and environmental design	1,724	243	.3	14.1
Area studies	1,017	397	.4	39.0
Biological sciences	5,756	1,943	2.1	33.8
Business and management	26,654	1,045	1.1	3.9
Communications	1,856	642	.7	34.6
Computer and information sciences	1,588	164	.2	10.3
Education	89,067	50,020	53.8	56.2
Engineering	16,457	185	.2	1.1
Fine and applied arts	6,678	3,165	3.4	47.4
Foreign languages	4,779	3,126	3.4	65.4
Health professions	5,902	3,272	3.5	55.4
Home economics	1,453	1,365	1.5	93.9
Law	955	46	(1)	4.8
Letters	12,743	7,328	7.9	57.5
Library science	7,028	5,713	6.1	81.3
Mathematics	5,201	1,524	1.6	29.3
Military sciences	2			
Physical sciences	6,386	853	.9	13.4
Psychology	4,438	1,651	1.8	37.2
Public affairs and services	8,406	4,099	4.4	48.8
Social sciences	16,522	4,710	5.1	28.5
Theology	2,710	661	.7	24.4
Interdisciplinary studies	1,706	600	.6	35.2

[1] Less than 0.05.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Educational Statistics.

Table 60b.—Earned Doctor's Degrees Conferred on Women, 1970–1971

Field of study	Total	Women		
		Number	Percent distribution	As percent of all doctor's degrees conferred
All fields	32,113	4,579	100.0	14.3
Agriculture and natural resources	1,086	31	.7	2.9
Architecture and environmental design	36	3	.1	8.3
Area studies	149	26	.6	17.4
Biological sciences	3,645	595	13.0	16.3
Business and management	810	23	.5	2.8
Communications	145	19	.4	13.1
Computer and information sciences	128	3	.1	2.3
Education	6,398	1,355	29.6	21.2
Engineering	3,638	23	.5	.6
Fine and applied arts	621	138	3.0	22.2
Foreign languages	781	297	6.5	38.0
Health professions	466	77	1.7	16.5
Home economics	123	75	1.6	61.0
Law	20			
Letters	2,416	567	12.4	23.5
Library science	39	11	.2	28.2
Mathematics	1,199	93	2.0	7.8
Military sciences				
Physical sciences	4,391	246	5.4	5.6
Psychology	1,782	427	9.3	24.0
Public affairs and services	178	43	.9	24.2
Social sciences	3,659	507	11.1	13.9
Theology	312	6	.1	1.9
Interdisciplinary studies	91	14	.3	15.4

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Educational Statistics.

Table 61.—Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers[1] With Children Under 14 Years of Age, by Age of Children, February 1965

[Percent distribution]

Type of arrangement	Total	Age of children		
		Under 6 years	6 to 11 years	12 and 13 years
Number (in thousands)	12,287	3,794	6,091	2,401
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Care in child's own home	45.5	47.1	46.9	38.1
By:				
Father	14.9	14.4	15.4	14.3
Other relative	21.2	17.5	23.3	20.9
Under 16 years	4.6	2.1	6.1	4.7
16 years and over	16.6	15.3	17.1	16.2
Nonrelative who only looked after children	4.7	8.4	3.8	1.2
Nonrelative who usually did additional household chores	4.7	6.9	4.4	1.7
Care in someone else's home	15.7	30.7	11.0	4.8
By:				
Relative	7.8	14.9	5.2	3.3
Nonrelative	8.0	15.8	5.8	1.5
Other arrangements	38.8	22.1	42.1	57.0
Care in group care center	2.2	5.6	.6	.4
Child looked after self	8.1	.5	8.0	20.7
Mother looked after child while working	13.0	15.0	12.5	11.1
Mother worked only during child's school hours	15.0	.8	20.5	24.2
Other	.5	.3	.6	.7

[1] Refers to mothers who worked either full time or part time for 27 weeks or more in 1964.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, Children's Bureau; and U.S. Department of Labor, Wage and Labor Standards Administration, Women's Bureau: "Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers in the United States." Children's Bureau Pub. 461–1968.

Table 62.—Average Daily Time Contributed by Various Family Members in All Household Work

Number of children	Age of wife or youngest child	Time contributed by—									
		Nonemployed-wife households					Employed-wife households				
		Families in sample	Wife	Husband	Child 12 to 17 [1]	Child 6 to 11 [1]	Families in sample	Wife	Husband	Child 12 to 17 [1]	Child 6 to 11 [1]
		Number	*Hours*	*Hours*	*Hours*	*Hours*	*Number*	*Hours*	*Hours*	*Hours*	*Hours*
	Wife:										
None	Under 25	16	5.1	0.9	.....	.....	29	3.5	1.4	.....	.....
	25 to 39	20	5	1.2	.....	.....	25	3.6	1.4	.....	.....
	40 to 54	32	6.2	1.5	.....	.....	13	4.3	.8	.....	.....
	55 and over	39	5.4	2.0	.....	.....	11	4.3	1.1	.....	.....
	Youngest child:										
1	12 to 17	22	7.0	2.0	1.2	.....	24	5.0	1.8	1.1	.....
	6 to 11	24	6.9	1.5	.....	0.4	21	5.7	1.2	.....	0.6
	2 to 5	28	6.8	1.7	.....	.....	18	4.6	1.4	.....	.....
	1	39	7.5	1.7	.....	.....	6	6.4	.5	.....	.....
	Under 1	41	8.3	1.6	.....	.....	[2]	[2]	[2]	.....	.....
2	12 to 17	27	7.1	1.7	.9	.....	19	4.8	1.7	1.2	.....
	6 to 11	64	7.4	1.6	.8	.5	24	5.4	1.5	1.0	.5
	2 to 5	96	8.2	1.6	.8	.3	29	6.2	1.7	1.2	.3
	1	53	8.8	1.7	[3]	.4	10	6.2	3.5	[3]	[3]
	Under 1	66	9.5	1.5	[3]	.3	7	7.7	1.6	[3]	[3]
3	12 to 17	26	6.7	1.1	1.0	.....	17	3.8	1.5	1.1	.....
	6 to 11	61	7.3	1.6	1.2	.6	27	6.3	1.4	1.4	.8
	2 to 5	72	8.0	1.4	1.1	.6	15	7.5	2.1	[3]	.4
	1	51	8.8	1.6	.4	.4	4	7.5	2.4	[3]	[3]
	Under 1	32	10.1	1.5	[3]	.7	4	6.6	2.1	[3]	[3]
4	12 to 17	7	6.4	1.1	.9	.....	9	6.1	1.2	1.4	.....
	6 to 11	52	8.0	1.4	1.1	.6	18	5.3	.9	.8	.4
	2 to 5	35	9.1	1.4	.9	.5	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	1	23	8.7	1.9	1.0	.5	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	Under 1	34	10.5	2.1	[3]	1.5	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
5 or 6	6 to 11	16	8.6	2.0	1.4	.6	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	2 to 5	17	9.0	1.5	1.0	.5	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	1	6	7.5	1.1	[3]	.4	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	Under 1	11	10.3	2.0	1.2	.8	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
7 to 9	2 to 5	10	8.8	2.1	1.2	.5	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]	[3]
	Under 1	4	11.7	1.9	[3]	.9	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

[1] Averages for children are for each child in family.
[2] Fewer than 4 families.
[3] Fewer than 4 children of designated ages.

Source: Data collected by N.Y. State College of Human Ecology, Cornell University, included 1,318 urban-suburban households, Syracuse, N.Y., 1967–68 and 60 rural households, Cortland County, N.Y., 1971. Based on 1971 wage rates.

SELECTED LEGISLATION RELATED TO WOMEN WORKERS—Part 2

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BRIEF HIGHLIGHTS OF MAJOR FEDERAL LAWS AND ORDER ON SEX DISCRIMINATION

Equal Pay Act of 1963 (generally effective June 11, 1964)

As an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA), this act requires the same pay for men and women doing equal work, requiring equal skill, effort, and responsibility under similar working conditions in the same establishment. Its provisions apply to "wages" in the sense of remuneration for employment (including overtime) and employer contributions for most fringe benefits. Where discrimination exists, pay rates of the lower paid sex must be raised to equal those of the higher paid sex. In a landmark decision, a Federal court rejected a claim that the jobs of men and women have to be identical for them to receive equal pay and asserted that they need only be "substantially equal."

The act, which is enforced by the Labor Department's Wage and Hour Division, permits wage differentials based on a bona fide seniority or merit system or a system that measures earnings by quantity or quality of production or any other factor other than sex. It specifically prohibits discharging or discriminating against any employee who files a complaint. Also, it prohibits labor organizations from causing or attempting to cause employers to violate the act.

As of July 1, 1972, the protection of the Equal Pay Act was extended to executive,administrative, and professional employees and to outside sales personnel. As of May 1, 1974, the act was further extended to most employees of Federal, State, and local governments. Among the few categories still unprotected are employees in some small retail or service establishments.

Further information on the Equal Pay Act and other provisions of the FLSA, as well as the Federal law against age discrimination in employment, is available from the field offices of the Wage and Hour Division or from:

Wage and Hour Division
Employment Standards Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
Washington, D.C. 20210

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972

Title VII prohibits discrimination in employment based on sex, as well as on race, color, religion, and national origin, by employers of 15 or more employees, public and private employment agencies, labor organizations with 15 or more members, and labor-management apprenticeship programs. State and local government agencies and public and private educational institutions are covered, but religious educational institutions or associations are exempt with respect to the employment of individuals of a particular religion. Employers excluded from coverage are Federal and District of Columbia agencies (other than the Federal-State employment service system), federally owned corporations, and Indian tribes. Specifically excluded from the definition of "employee" are State and local elected officials and their personal staff and policymaking appointees.

Discrimination based on race, color, sex, religion, or national origin is unlawful in hiring or firing; wages; fringe benefits; classifying, referring, assigning, or promoting employees; extending or assigning use of facilities; training, retraining, or apprenticeships; or any other terms, conditions, or privileges of employment.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), which enforces title VII, has issued "Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex." The guidelines, which were last revised April 5, 1972, bar hiring based on stereotyped characterization of the sexes, classification or labeling of "men's jobs" and "women's jobs," or advertising under male or female headings. They specify that the bona fide occupational qualification exemption should be interpreted narrowly, and that State laws which prohibit or limit the employment of women--in certain occupations, or in jobs that require lifting or carrying weights in excess of prescribed limits, during certain hours of the night, for more than a specified number of hours per day or per week, or for certain periods before and after childbirth--conflict with and are superseded by title VII. Accordingly, these "protective" labor laws cannot be used as a reason for refusing to employ women.

The guidelines state that, where State laws require minimum wage and overtime pay for women only, an employer not only may not refuse to hire female applicants to avoid this payment but must provide the same benefits for male employees. Similar provisions apply to rest and meal periods and physical facilities, although if an employer can prove that business necessity precludes providing these benefits to both men and women, the employer need not provide them to members of either sex.

Also, the guidelines prohibit excluding from employment an applicant or employee because of pregnancy. They state, among other things, that disabilities caused or contributed to by pregnancy, miscarriage, abortion, childbirth, and recovery therefrom are, for all job-related purposes, temporary disabilities and should be treated as such under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan available in connection with employment. Accrual of seniority, reinstatement, and payment under such insurance or plan should therefore be applied to disability due to pregnancy or childbirth as to other temporary disabilities. Where the employer does not have a leave plan, the Women's Bureau suggests that the EEOC be contacted.

Further information is available from regional offices of the EEOC or from:

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
1800 G Street NW.
Washington, D.C. 20506

Executive Order 11246, as amended (effective October 14, 1968)

This order prohibits employment discrimination based on sex, as well as on race, color, religion, or national origin, by Federal contractors or subcontractors and contractors who perform work under a federally assisted construction contract exceeding $10,000. Coverage includes all facilities of the contractor, regardless of whether they are involved in the performance of the Federal contract. The order does not exempt specific kinds of employment or employees.

To ensure nondiscrimination in employment, contractors must take affirmative action in such areas as recruitment and recruitment advertising; hiring, upgrading, demotion, and transfer; layoff or termination; rates of pay or other compensation; and selection for training, including apprenticeship.

The Labor Department's Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC), which enforces the order, has issued "Sex Discrimination Guidelines." The guidelines state, among other things, that contractors may not advertise under male and female classifications, base seniority lists on sex, deny a person a job because of State "protective" labor laws, make distinctions between married and unmarried persons of one sex only, or penalize women in their terms and conditions of employment because they require leave for childbearing. The guidelines also specifically require the granting of a leave of absence to an employee for childbearing and reinstatement to her original job or to a position of like status and pay, without loss of service credits. A proposed revision of these guidelines appeared in the Federal Register of December 27, 1973. No final action has been taken as of June 1, 1974.

Nonconstruction contractors who have 50 or more employees and a contract of $50,000 or more are required by OFCC's Revised Order No. 4 (effective December 4, 1971) to develop written affirmative action programs which must establish acceptable goals and timetables for including more minorities and women in job categories where they have been underutilized.

Further information is available from:

Office of Federal Contract Compliance
Employment Standards Administration
U.S. Department of Labor
Washington, D.C. 20210

June 1974

Public Law 88-38
88th Congress, S. 1409
June 10, 1963

An Act

To prohibit discrimination on account of sex in the payment of wages by employers engaged in commerce or in the production of goods for commerce.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act may be cited as the "Equal Pay Act of 1963,". Equal Pay Act of 1963.

DECLARATION OF PURPOSE

SEC. 2. (a) The Congress hereby finds that the existence in industries engaged in commerce or in the production of goods for commerce of wage differentials based on sex—

(1) depresses wages and living standards for employees necessary for their health and efficiency;

(2) prevents the maximum utilization of the available labor resources;

(3) tends to cause labor disputes, thereby burdening, affecting, and obstructing commerce;

(4) burdens commerce and the free flow of goods in commerce; and

(5) constitutes an unfair method of competition.

(b) It is hereby declared to be the policy of this Act, through exercise by Congress of its power to regulate commerce among the several States and with foreign nations, to correct the conditions above referred to in such industries.

SEC. 3. Section 6 of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, as amended (29 U.S.C. et seq.), is amended by adding thereto a new subsection (d) as follows: Discrimination prohibited. 52 Stat. 1062; 63 Stat. 912. 29 USC 206.

"(d)(1) No employer having employees subject to any provisions of this section shall discriminate, within any establishment in which such employees are employed, between employees on the basis of sex by paying wages to employees in such establishment at a rate less than the rate at which he pays wages to employees of the opposite sex in such establishment for equal work on jobs the performance of which requires equal skill, effort, and responsibility, and which are performed under similar working conditions, except where such payment is made pursuant to (i) a seniority system; (ii) a merit system; (iii) a system which measures earnings by quantity or quality of production; or (iv) a differential based on any other factor other than sex: *Provided*, That an employer who is paying a wage rate differential in violation of this subsection shall not, in order to comply with the provisions of this subsection, reduce the wage rate of any employee. 77 STAT. 56. 77 STAT. 57.

"(2) No labor organization, or its agents, representing employees of an employer having employees subject to any provisions of this section shall cause or attempt to cause such an employer to discriminate against an employee in violation of paragraph (1) of this subsection.

"(3) For purposes of administration and enforcement, any amounts owing to any employee which have been withheld in violation of this subsection shall be deemed to be unpaid minimum wages or unpaid overtime compensation under this Act.

"(4) As used in this subsection, the term 'labor organization' means any organization of any kind, or any agency or employee representation committee or plan, in which employees participate and which exists for the purpose, in whole or in part, of dealing with employers concerning grievances, labor disputes, wages, rates of pay, hours of employment, or conditions of work." "Labor organization."

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77 STAT. 57.

Effective date.

SEC. 4. The amendments made by this Act shall take effect upon the expiration of one year from the date of its enactment: *Provided*, That in the case of employees covered by a bona fide collective bargaining agreement in effect at least thirty days prior to the date of enactment of this Act, entered into by a labor organization (as defined in section 6(d)(4) of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, as amended), the amendments made by this Act shall take effect upon the termination of such collective bargaining agreement or upon the expiration of two years from the date of enactment of this Act, whichever shall first occur.

Approved June 10, 1963, 12:00 m.

LEGISLATIVE HISTORY:

HOUSE REPORT No. 309 accompanying H. R. 6060 (Education & Labor Comm.).
SENATE REPORT No. 176 (Labor & Public Welfare Comm.).
CONGRESSIONAL RECORD, Vol. 109, 1963:
May 16, 17: Considered and passed Senate.
May 23: Considered and passed House, amended, in lieu of H. R. 6060.
May 28: Senate agrees to House amendments.

TITLE VII—EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY[1]

DEFINITIONS

SEC. 701. For the purposes of this title—

(a) The term "person" includes one or more individuals, *governments, governmental agencies, political subdivisions*, labor unions, partnerships, associations, corporations, legal representatives, mutual companies, joint-stock companies, trusts, unincorporated organizations, trustees, trustees in bankruptcy, or receivers.

(b) The term "employer" means a person engaged in an industry affecting commerce who has *fifteen* or more employees for each working day in each of twenty or more calendar weeks in the current or preceding calendar year, and any agent of such a person, but such term does not include (1) the United States, a corporation wholly owned by the Government of the United States, an Indian tribe, or *any department or agency of the District of Columbia subject by statute to procedures of the competitive service (as defined in section 2102 of title 5 of the United States Code)*, *or* (2) a bona fide private membership club (other than a labor organization) which is exempt from taxation under section 501(c) of the Internal Revenue Code of 1954, *except that during the first year after the date of enactment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972*, persons having fewer than *twenty-five* employees (and their agents) shall not be considered *employers*.

(c) The term "employment agency" means any person regularly undertaking with or without compensation to procure employees for an employer or to procure for employees opportunities to work for an employer and includes an agent of such a person.

(d) The term "labor organization" means a labor organization engaged in an industry affecting commerce, and any agent of such an organization, and includes any organization of any kind, any agency, or employee representation committee, group, association, or plan so engaged in which employees participate and which exists for the purpose, in whole or in part, of dealing with employers concerning grievances, labor disputes, wages, rates of pay, hours, or other terms or conditions of employment, and any conference, general committee, joint or system board, or joint council so engaged which is subordinate to a national or international labor organization.

(e) A labor organization shall be deemed to be engaged in an industry affecting commerce if (1) it maintains or operates a hiring hall or hiring office which procures employees for an employer or procures for employees opportunities to work for an employer, or (2) the number of its

[1] Includes 1972 amendments made by P.L. 92-261 printed in italic.

members (or, where it is a labor organization composed of other labor organizations or their representatives, if the aggregate number of the members of such other labor organization) is (A) *twenty-five* or more during the first year after the *date of enactment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972*, or (B) *fifteen* or more thereafter, and such labor organization—

(1) is the certified representative of employees under the provisions of the National Labor Relations Act, as amended, or the Railway Labor Act, as amended;

(2) although not certified, is a national or international labor organization or a local labor organization recognized or acting as the representative of employees of an employer or employers engaged in an industry affecting commerce; or

(3) has chartered a local labor organization or subsidiary body which is representing or actively seeking to represent employees of employers within the meaning of paragraph (1) or (2); or

(4) has been chartered by a labor organization representing or actively seeking to represent employees within the meaning of paragraph (1) or (2) as the local or subordinate body through which such employees may enjoy membership or become affiliated with such labor organization; or

(5) is a conference, general committee, joint or system board, or joint council subordinate to a national or international labor organization, which includes a labor organization engaged in an industry affecting commerce within the meaning of any of the preceding paragraphs of this subsection.

(f) The term "employee" means an individual employed by an employer, *except that the term 'employee' shall not include any person elected to public office in any State or political subdivision of any State by the qualified voters thereof, or any person chosen by such officer to be on such officer's personal staff, or an appointee on the policymaking level or an immediate adviser with respect to the excercise of the constitutional or legal powers of the office. The exemption set forth in the preceding sentence shall not include employees subject to the civil service laws of a State government, governmental agency or political subdivision.*

(g) The term "commerce" means trade, traffic, commerce, transportation, transmission, or communication among the several States; or between a State and any place outside thereof; or within the District of Columbia, or a possession of the United States; or between points in the same State but through a point outside thereof.

(h) The term "industry affecting commerce" means any activity, business, or industry in commerce or in which a labor dispute would hinder or obstruct commerce or the free flow of commerce and includes any activity or industry "affecting commerce" within the meaning of

the Labor-Management Reporting and Disclosure Act of 1959, *and further includes any governmental industry, business, or activity.*

(i) The term "State" includes a State of the United States, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, American Samoa, Guam, Wake Island, the Canal Zone, and Outer Continental Shelf lands defined in the Outer Continental Shelf Lands Act.

(j) The term "religion" includes all aspects of religious observance and practice, as well as belief, unless an employer demonstrates that he is unable to reasonably accommodate to an employee's or prospective employee's, religious observance or practice without undue hardship on the conduct of the employer's business.

EXEMPTION

SEC. 702. This title shall not apply to an employer with respect to the employment of aliens outside any State, or to a religious corporation, association, *educational institution*, or society with respect to the employment of individuals of a particular religion to perform work connected with the carrying on by such corporation, association, *educational institution*, or society of its *activities*.

DISCRIMINATION BECAUSE OF RACE, COLOR, RELIGION, SEX, OR NATIONAL ORIGIN

SEC. 703. (a) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer—

(1) to fail or refuse to hire or to discharge any individual, or otherwise to discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin; or

(2) to limit, segregate, or classify his employees *or applicants for employment* in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive any individual of employment opportunities or otherwise adversely affect his status as an employee, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

(b) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employment agency to fail or refuse to refer for employment, or otherwise to discriminate against, any individual because of his race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, or to classify or refer for employment any individual on the basis of his race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

(c) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for a labor organization—

(1) to exclude or to expel from its membership, or otherwise to discriminate against, any individual because of his race, color, religion, sex, or national origin;

(2) to limit, segregate, or classify its membership, *or applicants for membership* or to classify or fail or refuse to refer for employment any individual, in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive any individual of employment opportunities, or would limit such employment opportunities or otherwise adversely affect his status as an employee or as an applicant for employment, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin; or

(3) to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate against an individual in violation of this section.

(d) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for any employer, labor organization, or joint labor-management committee controlling apprenticeship or other training or retraining, including on-the-job training programs to discriminate against any individual because of his race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in admission to, or employment in, any program established to provide apprenticeship or other training.

(e) Notwithstanding any other provision of this title, (1) it shall not be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to hire and employ employees, for an employment agency to classify, or refer for employment any individual, for a labor organization to classify its membership or to classify or refer for employment any individual, or for an employer, labor organization, or joint labor-management committee controlling apprenticeship or other training or retraining programs to admit or employ any individual in any such program, on the basis of his religion, sex, or national origin in those certain instances where religion, sex, or national origin is a bona fide occupational qualification reasonably necessary to the normal operation of that particular business or enterprise, and (2) it shall not be an unlawful employment practice for a school, college, university, or other educational institution or institution of learning to hire and employ employees of a particular religion if such school, college, university, or other educational institution or institution of learning is, in whole or in substantial part, owned, supported, controlled, or managed by a particular religion or by a particular religious corporation, association, or society, or if the curriculum of such school, college, university, or other educational institution or institution of learning is directed toward the propagation of a particular religion.

(f) As used in this title, the phrase "unlawful employment practice" shall not be deemed to include any action or measure taken by an employer, labor organization, joint labor-management committee, or employment agency with respect to an individual who is a member of the Communist Party of the United States or of any other organization required to register as a Communist-action or Communist-front organization by final order of the Subversive Activities Control Board pursuant to the Subversive Activities Control Act of 1950.

(g) Notwithstanding any other provision of this title, it shall not be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to fail or refuse to hire and employ any individual for any position, for an employer to discharge any individual from any position, or for an employment agency to fail or refuse to refer any individual for employment in any position, or for a labor organization to fail or refuse to refer any individual for employment in any position, if—

(1) the occupancy of such position, or access to the premises in or upon which any part of the duties of such position is performed or is to be performed, is subject to any requirement imposed in the interest of the national security of the United States under any security program in effect pursuant to or administered under any statute of the United States or any Executive order of the President; and

(2) such individual has not fulfilled or has ceased to fulfill that requirement.

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(h) Notwithstanding any other provision of this title, it shall not be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to apply different standards of compensation, or different terms, conditions, or privileges of employment pursuant to a bona fide seniority or merit system, or a system which measures earnings by quantity or quality of production or to employees who work in different locations, provided that such differences are not the result of an intention to discriminate because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, nor shall it be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to give and to act upon the results of any professionally developed ability test provided that such test, its administration or action upon the results is not designed, intended or used to discriminate because of race, color, religion, sex or national origin. It shall not be an unlawful employment practice under this title for any employer to differentiate upon the basis of sex in determining the amount of the wages or compensation paid or to be paid to employees of such employer if such differentiation is authorized by the provisions of section 6(d) of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, as amended (29 U.S.C. 206(d)).

(i) Nothing contained in this title shall apply to any business or enterprise on or near an Indian reservation with respect to any publicly announced employment practice of such business or enterprise under which a preferential treatment is given to any individual because he is an Indian living on or near a reservation.

(j) Nothing contained in this title shall be interpreted to require any employer, employment agency, labor organization, or joint labor-management committee subject to this title to grant preferential treatment to any individual or to any group because of the race, color, religion, sex, or national origin of such individual or group on account of an imbalance which may exist with respect to the total number or percentage of persons of any race, color, religion, sex, or national origin employed by any employer, referred or classified for employment by any employment agency or labor organization, admitted to membership or classified by any labor organization, or admitted to, or employed in, any apprenticeship or other training program, in comparison with the total number or percentage of persons of such race, color, religion, sex, or national origin in any community, State, section, or other area, or in the available work force in any community, State, section, or other area.

OTHER UNLAWFUL EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES

SEC. 704. (a) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to discriminate against any of his employees or applicants for employment, for an employment agency, *or joint labor-management committee controlling apprenticeship or other training or retraining, including on-the-job training programs*, to discriminate against any individual, or for a labor organization to discriminate against any member thereof or applicant for membership, because he has opposed any practice made an unlawful employment practice by this title, or because he has made a charge, testified, assisted, or participated in any manner in an investigation, proceeding, or hearing under this title.

(b) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer, labor organization, employment *agency, or joint labor-management committee controlling apprenticeship or other training or retraining, in-*

cluding on-the-job training programs, to print or publish or cause to be printed or published any notice or advertisement relating to employment by such an employer or membership in or any classification or referral for employment by such a labor organization, or relating to any classification or referral for employment by such an employment *agency, or relating to admission to, or employment in, any program established to provide apprenticeship or other training by such a joint labor-management committee* indicating any preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination, based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, except that such a notice or advertisement may indicate a preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination based on religion, sex, or national origin when religion, sex, or national origin is a bona fide occupational qualification for employment.

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY COMMISSION

SEC. 705. (a) There is hereby created a Commission to be known as the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, which shall be composed of five members, not more than three of whom shall be members of the same political party. *Members of the Commission* shall be appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the *Senate* for a term of five *years. Any individual chosen to fill a vacancy shall be appointed only for the unexpired term of the member whom he shall succeed, and all members of the Commission shall continue to serve until their successors are appointed and qualified, except that no such member of the Commission shall continue to serve (1) for more than sixty days when the Congress is in session unless a nomination to fill such vacancy shall have been submitted to the Senate, or (2) after the adjournment sine die of the session of the Senate in which such nomination was submitted.* The President shall designate one member to serve as Chairman of the Commission, and one member to serve as Vice Chairman. The Chairman shall be responsible on behalf of the Commission for the administrative operations of the Commission, and *except as provided in subsection (b),* shall appoint, in accordance with the *provisions of title 5, United States Code, governing appointments in the competitive service, such officers, agents, attorneys, hearing examiners, and employees as he deems necessary to assist it in the performance of its functions and to fix their compensation in accordance with the provisions of chapter 51 and subchapter III of chapter 53 of title 5, United States Code, relating to classification and General Schedule pay rates: Provided, That assignment, removal, and compensation of hearing examiners shall be in accordance with sections 3105, 3344, 5362, and 7521 of title 5, United States Code.*

(b)(1) There shall be a General Counsel of the Commission appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for a term of four years. The General Counsel shall have responsibility for the conduct of litigation as provided in sections 706 and 707 of this title. The General Counsel shall have such other duties as the Commission may prescribe or as may be provided by law and shall concur with the Chairman of the Commission on the appointment and supervision of regional attorneys. The General Counsel of the Commission on the effective date of this Act shall continue in such position and perform the functions specified in this subsection until a successor is appointed and qualified.

(2) Attorneys appointed under this section may, at the direction of the Commission, appear for and represent the Commission in any case in court, provided that the Attorney General shall conduct all litigation to which the Commission is a party in the Supreme Court pursuant to this title.

(c) A vacancy in the Commission shall not impair the right of the remaining members to exercise all the powers of the Commission and three members thereof shall constitute a quorum.

(d) The Commission shall have an official seal which shall be judicially noticed.

(e) The Commission shall at the close of each fiscal year report to the Congress and to the President concerning the action it has taken; the names, salaries, and duties of all individuals in its employ and the moneys it has disbursed; and shall make such further reports on the cause of and means of eliminating discrimination and such recommendations for further legislation as may appear desirable.

(f) The principal office of the Commission shall be in or near the District of Columbia, but it may meet or exercise any or all its powers at any other place. The Commission may establish such regional or State offices as it deems necessary to accomplish the purpose of this title.

(g) The Commission shall have power—

(1) to cooperate with and, with their consent, utilize regional, State, local, and other agencies, both public and private, and individuals;

(2) to pay to witnesses whose depositions are taken or who are summoned before the Commission or any of its agents the same witness and mileage fees as are paid to witnesses in the courts of the United States;

(3) to furnish to persons subject to this title such technical assistance as they may request to further their compliance with this title or an order issued thereunder;

(4) upon the request of (i) any employer, whose employees or some of them, or (ii) any labor organization, whose members or some of them, refuse or threaten to refuse to cooperate in effectuating the provisions of this title, to assist in such effectuation by conciliation or such other remedial action as is provided by this title;

(5) to make such technical studies as are appropriate to effectuate the purposes and policies of this title and to make the results of such studies available to the public;

(6) to *intervene* in a civil action brought *under section 706* by an aggrieved party *against a respondent other than a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision.*

(h) The Commission shall, in any of its educational or promotional activities, cooperate with other departments and agencies in the performance of such educational and promotional activities.

(i) All officers, agents, attorneys, and employees of the Commission shall be subject to the provisions of section 9 of the Act of August 2, 1939, as amended (the Hatch Act), notwithstanding any exemption contained in such section.

SEC. 706. (a) *The Commission is empowered, as hereinafter provided, to prevent any person from engaging in any unlawful employment practice as set forth in section 703 or 704 of this title.*

(b) Whenever *a charge is filed by or on behalf of a* person claiming to be aggrieved, or by a member of the Commission, *alleging* that an employer, employment agency, labor *organization, or joint labor-management committee controlling apprenticeship or other training or retraining, including on-the-job training programs,* has engaged in an unlawful employment practice, the Commission shall *serve a notice of the charge (including the date, place and circumstances of the alleged unlawful employment practice) on* such employer, employment agency, labor *organization, or joint labor-management committee* (hereinafter referred to as the "respondent") *within ten days, and shall make an investigation thereof. Charges shall be in writing under oath or affirmation and shall contain such information and be in such form as the Commission requires. Charges* shall not be made public by the Commission. If the Commission *determines* after such investigation that there is *not* reasonable cause to believe that the charge is true, *it shall dismiss the charge and promptly notify the person claiming to be aggrieved and the respondent of its action. In determining whether reasonable cause exists, the Commission shall accord substantial weight to final findings and orders made by State or local authorities in proceedings commenced under State or local law pursuant to the requirements of subsections (c) and (d). If the Commission determines after such investigation that there is reasonable cause to believe that the charge is true,* the Commission shall endeavor to eliminate any such alleged unlawful employment practice by informal methods of conference, conciliation, and persuasion. Nothing said or done during and as a part of such *informal* endeavors may be made public by the *Commission, its officers or employees, or used as evidence in a subsequent proceeding* without the written consent of the *persons concerned.* Any *person* who *makes* public information in violation of this subsection shall be fined not more than $1,000 or imprisoned *for* not more than one *year, or both. The Commission shall make its determination on reasonable cause as promptly as possible and, so far as practicable, not later than one hundred and twenty days from the filing of the charge or, where applicable under subsection (c) or (d) from the date upon which the Commission is authorized to take action with respect to the charge.*

(c) In the case of an alleged unlawful employment practice occurring in a State, or political subdivision of a State, which has a State or local law prohibiting the unlawful employment practice alleged and establishing or authorizing a State or local authority to grant or seek relief from such practice or to institute criminal proceedings with respect thereto upon receiving notice thereof, no charge may be filed under subsection (a) by the person aggrieved before the expiration of sixty days after proceedings have been commenced under the State or local law, unless such proceedings have been earlier terminated, provided that such sixty-day period shall be extended to one hundred and twenty days during the first year after the effective date of such State or local law. If any requirement for the commencement of such proceedings is imposed by a State or local authority other than a requirement of the filing of a written and signed statement of the facts

upon which the proceeding is based, the proceeding shall be deemed to have been commenced for the purposes of this subsection at the time such statement is sent by registered mail to the appropriate State or local authority.

(*d*) In the case of any charge filed by a member of the Commission alleging an unlawful employment practice occurring in a State or political subdivision of a State which has a State or local law prohibiting the practice alleged and establishing or authorizing a State or local authority to grant or seek relief from such practice or to institute criminal proceedings with respect thereto upon receiving notice thereof, the Commission shall, before taking any action with respect to such charge, notify the appropriate State or local officials and, upon request, afford them a reasonable time, but not less than sixty days (provided that such sixty-day period shall be extended to one hundred and twenty days during the first year after the effective *date* of such State or local law), unless a shorter period is requested, to act under such State or local law to remedy the practice alleged.

(*e*) A charge under *this section* shall be filed within *one hundred and eighty* days after the alleged unlawful employment practice *occurred and notice of the charge (including the date, place and circumstances of the alleged unlawful employment practice) shall be served upon the person against whom such charge is made within ten days thereafter*, except that in *a* case of an unlawful employment practice with respect to which the person aggrieved has *initially instituted proceedings with a State or local agency with authority to grant or seek relief from such practice or to institute criminal proceedings with respect thereto upon receiving notice thereof*, such charge shall be filed by *or on behalf of* the person aggrieved within *three hundred* days after the alleged unlawful employment practice occurred, or within thirty days after receiving notice that the State or local agency has terminated the proceedings under the State or local law, whichever is earlier, and a copy of such charge shall be filed by the Commission with the State or local agency.

(*f*)(*1*) If within thirty days after a charge is filed with the Commission or within thirty days after expiration of any period of reference under subsection (*c*) *or* (*d*), the Commission has been unable to *secure from the respondent a conciliation agreement acceptable to the Commission*, the Commission *may bring a civil action against any respondent not a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision named in the charge. In the case of a respondent which is a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision, if the Commission has been unable to secure from the respondent a conciliation agreement acceptable to the Commission, the Commission shall take no further action and shall refer the case to the Attorney General who may bring a civil action against such respondent in the appropriate United States district court. The person or persons aggrieved shall have the right to intervene in a civil action brought by the Commission or the Attorney General in a case involving a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision. If a charge filed with the Commission pursuant to subsection (b) is dismissed by the Commission, or if within one hundred and eighty days from the filing of such charge or the expiration of any period of reference under subsection (c) or (d), whichever is later, the Commission has not filed a civil action under this section or the Attorney General has not filed a civil action in a*

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case involving a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision, or the Commission has not entered into a conciliation agreement to which the person aggrieved is a party, the Commission, or the Attorney General in a case involving a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision, shall so notify the person aggrieved and within ninety days after the giving of such notice a civil action may be brought against the respondent named in the charge (A) by the person claiming to be aggrieved, or (B) if such charge was filed by a member of the Commission, by any person whom the charge alleges was aggrieved by the alleged unlawful employment practice. Upon application by the complainant and in such circumstances as the court may deem just, the court may appoint an attorney for such complainant and may authorize the commencement of the action without the payment of fees, costs, or security. Upon timely application, the court may, in its discretion, permit the *Commission,* or the Attorney General in a case involving a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision, to intervene in such civil action *upon certification* that the case is of general public importance. Upon request, the court may, in its discretion, stay further proceedings for not more than sixty days pending the termination of State or local proceedings described in subsections (*c*) *or* (*d*) *of this section or further* efforts of the Commission to obtain voluntary compliance.

(*2*) *Whenever a charge is filed with the Commission and the Commission concludes on the basis of a preliminary investigation that prompt judicial action is necessary to carry out the purposes of this Act, the Commission, or the Attorney General in a case involving a government, governmental agency, or political subdivision, may bring an action for appropriate temporary or preliminary relief pending final disposition of such charge. Any temporary restraining order or other order granting preliminary or temporary relief shall be issued in accordance with rule 65 of the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure. It shall be the duty of a court having jurisdiction over proceedings under this section to assign cases for hearing at the earliest practicable date and to cause such cases to be in every way expedited.*

(*3*) *Each United States district court and each United States court of a place subject to the jurisdiction of the United States shall have jurisdiction of actions brought under this title. Such an action may be brought in any judicial district in the State in which the unlawful employment practice is alleged to have been committed, in the judicial district in which the employment records relevant to such practice are maintained and administered, or in the judicial district in which the aggrieved person would have worked but for the alleged unlawful employment practice, but if the respondent is not found within any such district, such an action may be brought within the judicial district in which the respondent has his principal office. For purposes of sections 1404 and 1406 of title 28 of the United States Code, the judicial district in which the respondent has his principal office shall in all cases be considered a district in which the action might have been brought.*

(*4*) *It shall be the duty of the chief judge of the district (or in his absence, the acting chief judge) in which the case is pending immediately to designate a judge in such district to hear and determine the case. In the event that no judge in the district is available to hear and determine the case, the chief judge of the district, or the acting chief judge, as the*

case may be, shall certify this fact to the chief judge of the circuit (or in his absence, the acting chief judge) who shall then designate a district or circuit judge of the circuit to hear and determine the case.

(5) It shall be the duty of the judge designated pursuant to this subsection to assign the case for hearing at the earliest practicable date and to cause the case to be in every way expedited. If such judge has not scheduled the case for trial within one hundred and twenty days after issue has been joined, that judge may appoint a master pursuant to rule 53 of the Federal Rules of Civil Procedure.

(g) If the court finds that the respondent has intentionally engaged in or is intentionally engaging in an unlawful employment practice charged in the complaint, the court may enjoin the respondent from engaging in such unlawful employment practice, and order such affirmative action as may be appropriate, which may include, but is not limited to, reinstatement or hiring of employees, with or without back pay (payable by the employer, employment agency, or labor organization, as the case may be, responsible for the unlawful employment practice), or any other equitable relief as the court deems appropriate. Back pay liability shall not accrue from a date more than two years prior to the filing of a charge with the Commission. Interim earnings or amounts earnable with reasonable diligence by the person or persons discriminated against shall operate to reduce the back pay otherwise allowable. No order of the court shall require the admission or reinstatement of an individual as a member of a union, or the hiring, reinstatement, or promotion of an individual as an employee, or the payment to him of any back pay, if such individual was refused admission, suspended, or expelled, or was refused employment or advancement or was suspended or discharged for any reason other than discrimination on account of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin or in violation of section 704(a).

(h) The provisions of the Act entitled "An Act to amend the Judicial Code and to define and limit the jurisdiction of courts sitting in equity, and for other purposes," approved March 23, 1932 (29 U.S.C. 101–115), shall not apply with respect to civil actions brought under this section.

(i) In any case in which an employer, employment agency, or labor organization fails to comply with an order of a court issued in a civil action brought under *this section*, the Commission may commence proceedings to compel compliance with such order.

(j) Any civil action brought under *this section* and any proceedings brought under subsection (i) shall be subject to appeal as provided in sections 1291 and 1292, title 28, United States Code.

(k) In any action or proceeding under this title the court, in its discretion, may allow the prevailing party, other than the Commission or the United States, a reasonable attorney's fee as part of the costs, and the Commission and the United States shall be liable for costs the same as a private person.

SEC. 707. (a) Whenever the Attorney General has reasonable cause to believe that any person or group of persons is engaged in a pattern or practice of resistance to the full enjoyment of any of the rights secured by this title, and that the pattern or practice is of such a nature and is intended to deny the full exercise of the rights herein described, the Attorney General may bring a civil action in the appropriate district court of the United States by filing with it a

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complaint (1) signed by him (or in his absence the Acting Attorney General), (2) setting forth facts pertaining to such pattern or practice, and (3) requesting such relief, including an application for a permanent or temporary injunction, restraining order or other order against the person or persons responsible for such pattern or practice, as he deems necessary to insure the full enjoyment of the rights herein described.

(b) The district courts of the United States shall have and shall exercise jurisdiction of proceedings instituted pursuant to this section, and in any such proceeding the Attorney General may file with the clerk of such court a request that a court of three judges be convened to hear and determine the case. Such request by the Attorney General shall be accompanied by a certificate that, in his opinion, the case is of general public importance. A copy of the certificate and request for a three-judge court shall be immediately furnished by such clerk to the chief judge of the circuit (or in his absence, the presiding circuit judge of the circuit) in which the case is pending. Upon receipt of such request it shall be the duty of the chief judge of the circuit or the presiding circuit judge, as the case may be, to designate immediately three judges in such circuit, of whom at least one shall be a circuit judge and another of whom shall be a district judge of the court in which the proceeding was instituted, to hear and determine such case, and it shall be the duty of the judges so designated to assign the case for hearing at the earliest practicable date, to participate in the hearing and determination thereof, and to cause the case to be in every way expedited. An appeal from the final judgment of such court will lie to the Supreme Court.

In the event the Attorney General fails to file such a request in any such proceeding, it shall be the duty of the chief judge of the district (or in his absence, the acting chief judge) in which the case is pending immediately to designate a judge in such district to hear and determine the case. In the event that no judge in the district is available to hear and determine the case, the chief judge of the district, or the acting chief judge, as the case may be, shall certify this fact to the chief judge of the circuit (or in his absence, the acting chief judge) who shall then designate a district or circuit judge of the circuit to hear and determine the case.

It shall be the duty of the judge designated pursuant to this section to assign the case for hearing at the earliest practicable date and to cause the case to be in every way expedited.

(c) Effective two years after the date of enactment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, the functions of the Attorney General under this section shall be transferred to the Commission, together with such personnel, property, records, and unexpended balances of appropriations, allocations, and other funds employed, used, held, available, or to be made available in connection with such functions unless the President submits, and neither House of Congress vetoes, a reorganization plan pursuant to chapter 9, of title 5, United States Code, inconsistent with the provisions of this subsection. The Commission shall carry out such functions in accordance with subsections (d) and (e) of this section.

(d) Upon the transfer of functions provided for in subsection (c) of this section, in all suits commenced pursuant to this section prior to the date of such transfer, proceedings shall continue without abatement, all

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court orders and decrees shall remain in effect, and the Commission shall be substituted as a party for the United States of America, the Attorney General, or the Acting Attorney General, as appropriate.

(e) Subsequent to the date of enactment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, the Commission shall have authority to investigate and act on a charge of a pattern or practice of discrimination, whether filed by or on behalf of a person claiming to be aggrieved or by a member of the Commission. All such actions shall be conducted in accordance with the procedures set forth in section 706 of this Act.

EFFECT ON STATE LAWS

SEC. 708. Nothing in this title shall be deemed to exempt or relieve any person from any liability, duty, penalty, or punishment provided by any present or future law of any State or political subdivision of a State, other than any such law which purports to require or permit the doing of any act which would be an unlawful employment practice under this title.

INVESTIGATIONS, INSPECTIONS, RECORDS, STATE AGENCIES

SEC. 709. (a) In connection with any investigation of a charge filed under section 706, the Commission or its designated representative shall at all reasonable times have access to, for the purposes of examination, and the right to copy any evidence of any person being investigated or proceeded against that relates to unlawful employment practices covered by this title and is relevant to the charge under investigation.

(b) The Commission may cooperate with State and local agencies charged with the administration of State fair employment practices laws and, with the consent of such agencies, may, for the purpose of carrying out its functions and duties under this title and within the limitation of funds appropriated specifically for such purpose, *engage in and contribute to the cost of research and other projects of mutual interest undertaken by such agencies, and* utilize the services of such agencies and their employees, and, notwithstanding any other provision of law, *pay by advance or reimbursement* such agencies and their employees for services rendered to assist the Commission in carrying out this title. In furtherance of such cooperative efforts, the Commission may enter into written agreements with such State or local agencies and such agreements may include provisions under which the Commission shall refrain from processing a charge in any cases or class of cases specified in such agreements or under which the Commission shall relieve any person or class of persons in such State or locality from requirements imposed under this section. The Commission shall rescind any such agreement whenever it determines that the agreement no longer serves the interest of effective enforcement of this title.

(c) *Every* employer, employment agency, and labor organization subject to this title shall (1) make and keep such records relevant to the determinations of whether unlawful employment practices have been or are being committed, (2) preserve such records for such periods, and (3) make such reports therefrom, as the Commission shall prescribe by regulation or order, after public hearing, as reasonable,

necessary, or appropriate for the enforcement of this title or the regulations or orders thereunder. The Commission shall, by regulation, require each employer, labor organization, and joint labor-management committee subject to this title which controls an apprenticeship or other training program to maintain such records as are reasonably necessary to carry out the purpose of this title, including, but not limited to, a list of applicants who wish to participate in such program, including the chronological order in which applications were received, and to furnish to the Commission upon request, a detailed description of the manner in which persons are selected to participate in the apprenticeship or other training program. Any employer, employment agency, labor organization, or joint labor-management committee which believes that the application to it of any regulation or order issued under this section would result in undue hardship may apply to the Commission for an exemption from the application of such regulation or order, *and, if such application for an exemption is denied,* bring a civil action in the United States district court for the district where such records are kept. If the Commission or the court, as the case may be, finds that the application of the regulation or order to the employer, employment agency, or labor organization in question would impose an undue hardship, the Commission or the court, as the case may be, may grant appropriate relief. *If any person required to comply with the provisions of this subsection fails or refuses to do so, the United States district court for the district in which such person is found, resides, or transacts business, shall, upon application of the Commission, or the Attorney General in a case involving a government, governmental agency or political subdivision, have jurisdiction to issue to such person an order requiring him to comply.*

(d) In prescribing requirements pursuant to subsection (c) of this section, the Commission shall consult with other interested State and Federal agencies and shall endeavor to coordinate its requirements with those adopted by such agencies. The Commission shall furnish upon request and without cost to any State or local agency charged with the administration of a fair employment practice law information obtained pursuant to subsection (c) of this section from any employer, employment agency, labor organization, or joint labor-management committee subject to the jurisdiction of such agency. Such information shall be furnished on condition that it not be made public by the recipient agency prior to the institution of a proceeding under State or local law involving such information. If this condition is violated by a recipient agency, the Commission may decline to honor subsequent requests pursuant to this subsection.

(e) It shall be unlawful for any officer or employee of the Commission to make public in any manner whatever any information obtained by the Commission pursuant to its authority under this section prior to the institution of any proceeding under this title involving such information. Any officer or employee of the Commission who shall make public in any manner whatever any information in violation of this subsection shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof, shall be fined not more than $1,000, or imprisoned not more than one year.

INVESTIGATORY POWERS

SEC. 710. For the purpose of all hearings and investigations conducted by the Commission or its duly authorized agents or agencies, section 11 of

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the National Labor Relations Act (49 Stat. 455; 29 U.S.C. 161) shall apply.

NOTICES TO BE POSTED

SEC. 711. (a) Every employer, employment agency, and labor organization, as the case may be, shall post and keep posted in conspicuous places upon its premises where notices to employees, applicants for employment, and members are customarily posted a notice to be prepared or approved by the Commission setting forth excerpts from, or summaries of, the pertinent provisions of this title and information pertinent to the filing of a complaint.

(b) A willful violation of this section shall be punishable by a fine of not more than $100 for each separate offense.

VETERANS' PREFERENCE

SEC. 712. Nothing contained in this title shall be construed to repeal or modify any Federal, State, territorial, or local law creating special rights or preference for veterans.

RULES AND REGULATIONS

SEC. 713. (a) The Commission shall have authority from time to time to issue, amend, or rescind suitable procedural regulations to carry out the provisions of this title. Regulations issued under the section shall be in conformity with the standards and limitations of the Administrative Procedure Act.

(b) In any action or proceeding based on any alleged unlawful employment practice, no person shall be subject to any liability or punishment for or on account of (1) the commission by such person of an unlawful employment practice if he pleads and proves that the act or omission complained of was in good faith, in conformity with, and in reliance on any written interpretation or opinion of the Commission, or (2) the failure of such person to publish and file any information required by any provision of this title if he pleads and proves that he failed to publish and file such information in good faith, in conformity with the instructions of the Commission issued under this title regarding the filing of such information. Such a defense, if established, shall be a bar to the action or proceeding, notwithstanding that (A) after such act or omission, such interpretation or opinion is modified or rescinded or is determined by judicial authority to be invalid or of no legal effect, or (B) after publishing or filing the description and annual reports, such publication or filing is determined by judicial authority not to be in conformity with the requirements of this title.

FORCIBLY RESISTING THE COMMISSION OR ITS REPRESENTATIVES

SEC. 714. The provisions of *sections 111 and 1114* title 18, United States Code, shall apply to officers, agents, and employees of the Commission in the performance of their official duties. *Notwithstanding the provisions of sections 111 and 1114 of title 18, United States Code, whoever in violation of the provisions of section 1114 of such title kills a person while engaged in or on account of the performance of his official*

functions under this Act shall be punished by imprisonment for any term of years or for life.

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY COORDINATING COUNCIL

SEC. 715. There shall be established an Equal Employment Opportunity Coordinating Council (hereinafter referred to in this section as the Council) composed of the Secretary of Labor, the Chairman of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, the Attorney General, the Chairman of the United States Civil Service Commission, and the Chairman of the United States Civil Rights Commission, or their respective delegates. The Council shall have the responsibility for developing and implementing agreements, policies and practices designed to maximize effort, promote efficiency, and eliminate conflict, competition, duplication and inconsistency among the operations, functions and jurisdictions of the various departments, agencies and branches of the Federal government responsible for the implementation and enforcement of equal employment opportunity legislation, orders, and policies. On or before July 1 of each year, the Council shall transmit to the President and to the Congress a report of its activities, together with such recommendations for legislative or administrative changes as it concludes are desirable to further promote the purposes of this section.

EFFECTIVE DATE

SEC. 716. (a) This title shall become effective one year after the date of its enactment.

(b) Notwithstanding subsection (a), sections of this title other than sections 703, 704, 706, and 707 shall become effective immediately.

(c) The President shall, as soon as feasible after the enactment of this title, convene one or more conferences for the purpose of enabling the leaders of groups whose members will be affected by this title to become familiar with the rights afforded and obligations imposed by its provisions, and for the purpose of making plans which will result in the fair and effective administration of this title when all of its provisions become effective. The President shall invite the participation in such conference or conferences of (1) the members of the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, (2) the members of the Commission on Civil Rights, (3) representatives of State and local agencies engaged in furthering equal employment opportunity, (4) representatives of private agencies engaged in furthering equal employment opportunity, and (5) representatives of employers, labor organizations, and employment agencies who will be subject to this title.

NONDISCRIMINATION IN FEDERAL GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT

SEC. 717. (a) All personnel actions affecting employees or applicants for employment (except with regard to aliens employed outside the limits of the United States) in military departments as defined in section 102 of title 5, United States Code, in executive agencies (other than the General Accounting Office) as defined in section 105 of title 5, United States Code (including employees and applicants for employment who are paid from nonappropriated funds), in the United States Postal Service and the Postal Rate Commission, in those units of the Government of the District of Columbia having positions in the competitive service, and in those units of

the legislative and judicial branches of the Federal Government having positions in the competitive service, and in the Library of Congress shall be made free from any discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

(b) Except as otherwise provided in this subsection, the Civil Service Commission shall have authority to enforce the provisions of subsection (a) through appropriate remedies, including reinstatement or hiring of employees with or without back pay, as will effectuate the policies of this section, and shall issue such rules, regulations, orders, and instructions as it deems necessary and appropriate to carry out its responsibilities under this section. The Civil Service Commission shall—

(1) be responsible for the annual review and approval of a national and regional equal employment opportunity plan which each department and agency and each appropriate unit referred to in subsection (a) of this section shall submit in order to maintain an affirmative program of equal employment opportunity for all such employees and applicants for employment;

(2) be responsible for the review and evaluation of the operation of all agency equal employment opportunity programs, periodically obtaining and publishing (on at least a semiannual basis) progress reports from each such department, agency, or unit; and

(3) consult with and solicit the recommendations of interested individuals, groups, and organizations relating to equal employment opportunity.

The head of each such department, agency, or unit shall comply with such rules, regulations, orders, and instructions which shall include a provision that an employee or applicant for employment shall be notified of any final action taken on any complaint of discrimination filed by him thereunder. The plan submitted by each department, agency, and unit shall include, but not be limited to—

(1) provision for the establishment of training and education programs designed to provide a maximum opportunity for employees to advance so as to perform at their highest potential; and

(2) a description of the qualifications in terms of training and experience relating to equal employment opportunity for the principal and operating officials of each such department, agency, or unit responsible for carrying out the equal employment opportunity program and of the allocation of personnel and resources proposed by such department, agency, or unit to carry out its equal employment opportunity program.

With respect to employment in the Library of Congress, authorities granted in this subsection to the Civil Service Commission shall be exercised by the Librarian of Congress.

(c) Within thirty days of receipt of notice of final action taken by a department, agency, or unit referred to in subsection 717(a), or by the Civil Service Commission upon an appeal from a decision or order of such department, agency, or unit on a complaint of discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, brought pursuant to subsection (a) of this section, Executive Order 11478 or any succeeding Executive orders, or after one hundred and eighty days from the filing of the initial charge with the department, agency, or unit or with the Civil Service Commission on appeal from a decision or order of such department, agency, or unit until such time as final action may be taken by a department,

agency, or unit, an employee or applicant for employment, if aggrieved by the final disposition of his complaint, or by the failure to take final action on his complaint, may file a civil action as provided in section 706, in which civil action the head of the department, agency, or unit, as appropriate, shall be the defendant.

(d) The provisions of section 706(f) through (k), as applicable, shall govern civil actions brought hereunder.

(e) Nothing contained in this Act shall relieve any Government agency or official of its or his primary responsibility to assure nondiscrimination in employment as required by the Constitution and statutes or of its or his responsibilities under Executive Order 11478 relating to equal employment opportunity in the Federal Government.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS WITH RESPECT TO DENIAL, TERMINATION, AND SUSPENSION OF GOVERNMENT CONTRACTS

SEC. 718. No Government contract, or portion thereof, with any employer, shall be denied, withheld, terminated, or suspended, by any agency or officer of the United States under any equal employment opportunity law or order, where such employer has an affirmative action plan which has previously been accepted by the Government for the same facility within the past twelve months without first according such employer full hearing and adjudication under the provisions of title 5, United States Code, section 554, and the following pertinent sections: Provided, That if such employer has deviated substantially from such previously agreed to affirmative action plan, this section shall not apply: Provided further, That for the purposes of this section an affirmative action plan shall be deemed to have been accepted by the Government at the time the appropriate compliance agency has accepted such plan unless within forty-five days thereafter the Office of Federal Contract Compliance has disapproved such plan.

PROVISIONS OF EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY ACT OF 1972 WHICH RELATE TO BUT DO NOT AMEND THE CIVIL RIGHTS ACT OF 1964

SEC. 9. (a) Section 5314 of title 5 of the United States Code is amended by adding at the end thereof the following new clause:

"(58) Chairman, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission."

(b) Clause (72) of section 5315 of such title is amended to read as follows:

"(72) Members, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (4)."

(c) Clause (111) of section 5316 of such title is repealed.

(d) Section 5316 of such title is amended by adding at the end thereof the following new clause:

"(131) General Counsel of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission."

SEC. 12. Section 5108(c) of title 5, United States Code, is amended by—

(1) striking out the word "and" at the end of paragraph (9);

(2) striking out the period at the end of paragraph (10) and inserting in lieu thereof a semicolon and the word "and"; and

(3) by adding immediately after paragraph (10) the last time it appears therein in the following new paragraph:

"(11) the Chairman of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, subject to the standards and procedures prescribed by this chapter, may place an additional ten positions in the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in GS–16, GS–17, and GS–18 for the purposes of carrying out title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964."

SEC. 14. The amendments made by this Act to section 706 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 shall be applicable with respect to charges pending with the Commission on the date of enactment of this Act and all charges filed thereafter.

Title 29—LABOR

Chapter XIV—Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

PART 1604—GUIDELINES ON DISCRIMINATION BECAUSE OF SEX

By virtue of the authority vested in it by section 713(b) of title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, 42 U.S.C., section 2000e–12, 78 Stat. 265, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission hereby revises Title 29, Chapter XIV, Part 1604 of the Code of Federal Regulations.

These Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex supersede and enlarge upon the Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex, issued by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission on December 2, 1965, and all amendments thereto. Because the material herein is interpretive in nature, the provisions of the Administrative Procedure Act (5 U.S.C. 553) requiring notice of proposed rule making, opportunity for public participation, and delay in effective date are inapplicable. The Guidelines shall be applicable to charges and cases presently pending or hereafter filed with the Commission.

Sec.

1604.1 General principles.
1604.2 Sex as a bona fide occupational qualification.
1604.3 Separate lines of progression and seniority systems.
1604.4 Discrimination against married women.
1604.5 Job opportunities advertising.
1604.6 Employment agencies.
1604.7 Pre-employment inquiries as to sex.
1604.8 Relationship of Title VII to the Equal Pay Act.
1604.9 Fringe benefits.
1604.10 Employment policies relating to pregnancy and childbirth.

AUTHORITY: The provisions of this Part 1604 issued under sec. 713(b), 78 Stat. 265, 42 U.S.C. sec. 2000e–12.

§ 1604.1 General principles.

(a) References to "employer" or "employers" in this Part 1604 state principles that are applicable not only to employers but also to labor organizations and to employment agencies insofar as their action or inaction may adversely affect employment opportunities.

(b) To the extent that the views expressed in prior Commission pronouncements are inconsistent with the views expressed herein, such prior views are hereby overruled.

(c) The Commission will continue to consider particular problems relating to sex discrimination on a case-by-case basis.

§ 1604.2 Sex as a bona fide occupational qualification.

(a) The Commission believes that the bona fide occupational qualification exception as to sex should be interpreted narrowly. Labels—"Men's jobs" and "Women's jobs"—tend to deny employment opportunities unnecessarily to one sex or the other.

(1) The Commission will find that the following situations do not warrant the application of the bona fide occupational qualification exception:

(i) The refusal to hire a woman because of her sex based on assumptions of the comparative employment characteristics of women in general. For example, the assumption that the turnover rate among women is higher than among men.

(ii) The refusal to hire an individual based on sterotyped characterizations of the sexes. Such sterotypes include, for example, that men are less capable of assembling intricate equipment; that women are less capable of aggressive salesmanship. The principle of nondiscrimination requires that individuals be considered on the basis of individual capacities and not on the basis of any characteristics generally attributed to the group.

(iii) The refusal to hire an individual because of the preferences of coworkers, the employer, clients or customers except as covered specifically in subparagraph (2) of this paragraph.

(2) Where it is necessary for the purpose of authenticity or genuineness, the Commission will consider sex to be a bona fide occupational qualification, e.g., an actor or actress.

(b) Effect of sex-oriented State employment legislation.

(1) Many States have enacted laws or promulgated administrative regulations with respect to the employment of females. Among these laws are those which prohibit or limit the employment of females, e.g., the employment of females in certain occupations, in jobs requiring the lifting or carrying of weights exceeding certain prescribed limits, during certain hours of the night, for more than a specified number of hours per day or per week, and for certain periods of time before and after childbirth. The Commission has found that such laws and regulations do not take into account the capacities, preferences, and abilities of individual females and, therefore, discriminate on the basis of sex. The Commission has concluded that such laws and regulations conflict with and are superseded by title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Accordingly, such laws will not be considered a defense to an otherwise established unlawful employment practice or as a basis for the application of the bona fide occupational qualification exception.

(2) The Commission has concluded that State laws and regulations which discriminate on the basis of sex with regard to the employment of minors are in conflict with and are superseded by title VII to the extent that such laws are more restrictive for one sex. Accordingly, restrictions on the employment of minors of one sex over and above those imposed on minors of the other sex will not be considered a defense to an otherwise established unlawful employment practice or as a basis for the application of the bona fide occupational qualification exception.

(3) A number of States require that minimum wage and premium pay for overtime be provided for female employees. An employer will be deemed to have engaged in an unlawful employment practice if:

(i) It refuses to hire or otherwise adversely affects the employment opportunities of female applicants or employees in order to avoid the payment of minimum wages or overtime pay required by State law; or

(ii) It does not provide the same benefits for male employees.

(4) As to other kinds of sex-oriented State employment laws, such as those requiring special rest and meal periods or physical facilities for women, provision of these benefits to one sex only will be a violation of title VII. An employer will be deemed to have engaged in an unlawful employment practice if:

(i) It refuses to hire or otherwise adversely affects the employment opportunities of female applicants or employees in order to avoid the provision of such benefits; or

(ii) It does not provide the same benefits for male employees. If the employer can prove that business necessity precludes providing these benefits to both men and women, then the State law is in conflict with and superseded by tile VII as to this employer. In this situation, the employer shall not provide such benefits to members of either sex.

(5) Some States require that separate restrooms be provided for employees of each sex. An employer will be deemed to have engaged in an unlawful employment practice if it refuses to hire or otherwise adversely affects the employment opportunities of applicants or employees in order to avoid the provision of such restrooms for persons of that sex.

§ 1604.3 Separate lines of progression and seniority systems.

(a) It is an unlawful employment practice to classify a job as "male" or "female" or to maintain separate lines of progression or separate seniority lists based on sex where this would adversely affect any employee unless sex is a bona fide occupational qualification for that job. Accordingly, employment practices are unlawful which arbitrarily classify jobs so that:

(1) A female is prohibited from applying for a job labeled "male," or for a job in a "male" line of progression; and vice versa.

(2) A male scheduled for layoff is prohibited from displacing a less senior female on a "female" seniority list; and vice versa.

(b) A Seniority system or line of progression which distinguishes between "light" and "heavy" jobs constitutes an unlawful employment practice if it operates as a disguised form of classification by sex, or creates unreasonable obstacles to the advancement by members of either sex into jobs which members of that sex would reasonably be expected to perform.

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§ 1604.4 Discrimination against married women.

(a) The Commission has determined that an employer's rule which forbids or restricts the employment of married women and which is not applicable to married men is a discrimination based on sex prohibited by title VII of the Civil Rights Act. It does not seem to us relevant that the rule is not directed against all females, but only against married females, for so long as sex is a factor in the application of the rule, such application involves a discrimination based on sex.

(b) It may be that under certain circumstances, such a rule could be justified within the meaning of section 703 (e)(1) of title VII. We express no opinion on this question at this time except to point out that sex as a bona fide occupational qualification must be justified in terms of the peculiar requirements of the particular job and not on the basis of a general principle such as the desirability of spreading work.

§ 1604.5 Job opportunities advertising.

It is a violation of title VII for a help-wanted advertisement to indicate a preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination based on sex unless sex is a bona fide occupational qualification for the particular job involved. The placement of an advertisement in columns classified by publishers on the basis of sex, such as columns headed "Male" or "Female," will be considered an expression of a preference, limitation, specification, or discrimination based on sex.

§ 1604.6 Employment agencies.

(a) Section 703(b) of the Civil Rights Act specifically states that it shall be unlawful for an employment agency to discriminate against any individual because of sex. The Commission has determined that private employment agencies which deal exclusively with one sex are engaged in an unlawful employment practice, except to the extent that such agencies limit their services to furnishing employees for particular jobs for which sex is a bona fide occupational qualification.

(b) An employment agency that receives a job order containing an unlawful sex specification will share responsibility with the employer placing the job order if the agency fills the order knowing that the sex specification is not based upon a bona fide occupational qualification. However, an employment agency will not be deemed to be in violation of the law, regardless of the determination as to the employer, if the agency does not have reason to believe that the employer's claim of bona fide occupations qualification is without substance and the agency makes and maintains a written record available to the Commission of each such job order. Such record shall include the name of the employer, the description of the job and the basis for the employer's claim of bona fide occupational qualification.

(c) It is the responsibility of employment agencies to keep informed of opinions and decisions of the Commission on sex discrimination.

§ 1604.7 Pre-employment inquiries as to sex.

A pre-employment inquiry may ask "Male ----------, Female ----------"; or "Mr. Mrs. Miss," provided that the inquiry is made in good faith for a nondiscriminatory purpose. Any pre-employment inquiry in connection with prospective employment which expresses directly or indirectly any limitation, specification, or discrimination as to sex shall be unlawful unless based upon a bona fide occupational qualification.

§ 1604.8 Relationship of Title VII to the Equal Pay Act.

(a) The employee coverage of the prohibitions against discrimination based on sex contained in title VII is coextensive with that of the other prohibitions contained in title VII and is not limited by section 703(h) to those employees covered by the Fair Labor Standards Act.

(b) By virtue of section 703(h), a defense based on the Equal Pay Act may be raised in a proceeding under title VII.

(c) Where such a defense is raised the Commission will give appropriate consideration to the interpretations of the Administrator, Wage and Hour Division, Department of Labor, but will not be bound thereby.

§ 1604.9 Fringe benefits.

(a) "Fringe benefits," as used herein, includes medical, hospital, accident, life insurance and retirement benefits; profit-sharing and bonus plans; leave; and other terms, conditions, and privileges of employment.

(b) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to discriminate between men and women with regard to fringe benefits.

(c) Where an employer conditions benefits available to employees and their spouses and families on whether the employee is the "head of the household" or "principal wage earner" in the family unit, the benefits tend to be available only to male employees and their families. Due to the fact that such conditioning discriminatorily affects the rights of women employees, and that "head of household" or "principal wage earner" status bears no relationship to job performance, benefits which are so conditioned will be found a prima facie violation of the prohibitions against sex discrimination contained in the Act.

(d) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to make available benefits for the wives and families of male employees where the same benefits are not made available for the husbands and families of female employees; or to make available benefits for the wives of male employees which are not made available for female employees; or to make available benefits to the husbands of female employees which are not made available for male employees. An example of such an unlawful employment practice is a situation in which wives of male employees receive maternity benefits while female employees receive no such benefits.

(e) It shall not be a defense under title VIII to a charge of sex discrimination in benefits that the cost of such benefits is greater with respect to one sex than the other.

(f) It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to have a pension or retirement plan which establishes different optional or compulsory retirement ages based on sex, or which differentiates in benefits on the basis of sex. A statement of the General Counsel of September 13, 1968, providing for a phasing out of differentials with regard to optional retirement age for certain incumbent employees is hereby withdrawn.

§ 1604.10 Employment policies relating to pregnancy and childbirth.

(a) A written or unwritten employment policy or practice which excludes from employment applicants or employees because of pregnancy is in prima facie violation of title VII.

(b) Disabilities caused or contributed to by pregnancy, miscarriage, abortion, childbirth, and recovery therefrom are, for all job-related purposes, temporary disabilities and should be treated as such under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan available in connection with employment. Written and unwritten employment policies and practices involving matters such as the commencement and duration of leave, the availability of extensions, the accrual of seniority and other benefits and privileges, reinstatement, and payment under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan, formal or informal, shall be applied to disability due to pregnancy or childbirth on the same terms and conditions as they are applied to other temporary disabilities.

(c) Where the termination of an employee who is temporarily disabled is caused by an employment policy under which insufficient or no leave is available, such a termination violates the Act if it has a disparate impact on employees of one sex and is not justified by business necessity.

Effective date. This revision shall become effective on the date of its publication in the FEDERAL REGISTER (4-5-72).

Signed at Washington, D.C., this the 31st day of March 1972.

WILLIAM H. BROWN III,
Chairman.

[FR Doc.72-5213 Filed 3-31-72;4:30 pm]

This is the text of Executive Order 11246, signed by President Johnson September 24, 1965, as amended by Executive Order 11375, signed October 13, 1967.

Amended Part I was superseded by Executive Order 11478, signed by President Nixon August 8, 1969.

Part II was amended to add sex as a prohibited basis of discrimination, effective October 13, 1968.

EXECUTIVE ORDER 11246

Under and by virtue of the authority vested in me as President of the United States by the Constitution and statutes of the United States, it is ordered as follows:

PART I—Nondiscrimination in Government Employment

[Secs. 101-105, barring discrimination in federal employment on account of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, were superseded by Executive Order 11478. These provisions called for affirmative-action programs for equal opportunity at the agency level under general supervision of the Civil Service Commission; establishment of complaint procedures at each agency with appeal to the Commission; and promulgation of regulations by CSC.]

PART II—Nondiscrimination in Employment by Government Contractors and Subcontractors

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SUBPART A—DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR

Sec. 201. The Secretary of Labor shall be responsible for the administration of Parts II and III of this Order and shall adopt such rules and regulations and issue such orders as he deems necessary and appropriate to achieve the purposes thereof.

SUBPART B—CONTRACTORS' AGREEMENTS

Sec. 202. Except in contracts exempted in accordance with Section 204 of this Order, all Government contracting agencies shall include in every Government contract hereafter entered into the following provisions:

"During the performance of this contract, the contractor agrees as follows:

"(1) The contractor will not discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. The contractor will take affirmative action to ensure that applicants are employed, and that employees are treated during employment, without regard to their race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. Such action shall include, but not be limited to the following: employment, upgrading, demotion, or transfer; recruitment or recruitment advertising; layoff or termination; rates of pay or other forms of compensation; and selection for training, including apprenticeship. The contractor agrees to post in conspicuous places, available to employees and applicants for employment, notices to be provided by the contracting officer setting forth the provisions of this nondiscrimination clause.

"(2) The contractor will, in all solicitations or advertisements for employees placed by or on behalf of the contractor, state that all qualified applicants will receive consideration for employment without regard to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

"(3) The contractor will send to each labor union or representative of workers with which he has a collective bargaining agreement or other contract or understanding, a notice, to be provided by the agency contracting officer, advising the labor union or workers' representative of the contractor's commitments under Section 202 of Executive Order No. 11246 of September 24, 1965, and shall post copies of the notice in conspicuous places available to employees and applicants for employment.

"(4) The contractor will comply with all provisions of Executive Order No. 11246 of September 24, 1965, and of the rules, regulations, and relevant orders of the Secretary of Labor.

"(5) The contractor will furnish all information and reports required by Executive Order No. 11246 of September 24, 1965, and by the rules, regulations, and orders of the Secretary of Labor, or pursuant thereto, and will permit access to his books, records, and accounts by the contracting agency and the Secretary of Labor for purposes of investigation to

ascertain compliance with such rules, regulations, and orders.

"(6) In the event of the contractor's noncompliance with the nondiscrimination clauses of this contract or with any of such rules, regulations, or orders, this contract may be cancelled, terminated, or suspended in whole or in part and the contractor may be declared ineligible for further Government contracts in accordance with procedures authorized in Executive Order No. 11246 of September 24, 1965, and such other sanctions may be imposed and remedies invoked as provided in Executive Order No. 11246 of September 24, 1965, or by rule, regulation, or order of the Secretary of Labor, or as otherwise provided by law.

"(7) The contractor will include the provisions of Paragraphs (1) through (7) in every subcontract or purchase order unless exempted by rules, regulations, or orders of the Secretary of Labor issued pursuant to Section 204 of Executive Order No. 11246 of September 24, 1965, so that such provisions will be binding upon each subcontractor or vendor. The contractor will take such action with respect to any subcontract or purchase order as the contracting agency may direct as a means of enforcing such provisions including sanctions for noncompliance: *Provided,* however, That in the event the contractor becomes involved in, or is threatened with, litigation with a subcontractor or vendor as a result of such direction by the contracting agency, the contractor may request the United States to enter into such litigation to protect the interests of the United States."

Sec. 203. (a) Each contractor having a contract containing the provisions prescribed in Section 202 shall file, and shall cause each of his subcontractors to file, Compliance Reports with the contracting agency or the Secretary of Labor as may be directed. Compliance Reports shall be filed within such times and shall contain such information as to the practices, policies, programs, and employment policies, programs, and employment statistics of the contractor and each subcontractor, and shall be in such form, as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe.

(b) Bidders or prospective contractors or subcontractors may be required to state whether they have participated in any previous contract subject to the provisions of this Order, or any preceding similar executive order, and in that event to submit, on behalf of themselves and their proposed subcontractors, Compliance Reports prior to or as an initial part of their bid or negotiation of a contract.

(c) Whenever the contractor or subcontractor has a collective bargaining agreement or other contract or understanding with a labor union or an agency referring workers or providing or supervising apprenticeship or training for such workers, the Compliance Report shall include such information as to such labor union's or agency's practices and policies affecting compliance as the Secretary of Labor may prescribe: *Provided,* That to the extent such information is within the exclusive possession of a labor union or an agency referring workers or providing or supervising apprenticeship or training and such labor union or agency shall refuse to furnish such information to the contractor, the contractor shall so certify to the contracting agency as part of its Compliance Report and shall set forth what efforts he has made to obtain such information.

(d) The contracting agency or the Secretary of Labor may direct that any bidder or prospective contractor or subcontractor shall submit, as part of his Compliance Report, a statement in writing, signed by an authorized officer or agent on behalf of any labor union or any agency referring workers or providing or supervising ap-

prenticeship or other training, with which the bidder or prospective contractor deals, with supporting information, to the effect that the signer's practices and policies do not discriminate on the grounds of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, and that the signer either will affirmatively cooperate in the implementation of the policy and provisions of this Order or that it consents and agrees that recruitment, employment, and the terms and conditions of employment under the proposed contract shall be in accordance with the purposes and provisions of the Order. In the event that the union, or the agency shall refuse to execute such a statement, the Compliance Report shall so certify and set forth what efforts have been made to secure such a statement and such additional factual material as the contracting agency or the Secretary of Labor may require.

Sec. 204. The Secretary of Labor may, when he deems that special circumstances in the national interest so require, exempt a contracting agency from the requirement of including any or all of the provisions of Section 202 of this Order in any specific contract, subcontract, or purchase order. The Secretary of Labor may, by rule or regulation, also exempt certain classes of contracts, subcontracts, or purchase orders (1) whenever work is to be or has been performed outside the United States and no recruitment of workers within the limits of the United States is involved; (2) for standard commercial supplies or raw materials; (3) involving less than specified amounts of money or specified numbers of workers; or (4) to the extent that they involve subcontracts below a specified tier. The Secretary of Labor may also provide, by rule, regulation, or order, for the exemption of facilities of a contractor which are in all respects separate and distinct from activities of the contractor related to the performance of the contract: *Provided,* That such an exemption will not interfere with or impede the effectuation of the purposes of this Order: *And provided further,* That in the absence of such an exemption all facilities shall be covered by the provisions of this Order.

SUBPART C—POWERS AND DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR AND THE CONTRACTING AGENCIES

Sec. 205. Each contracting agency shall be primarily responsible for obtaining compliance with the rules, regulations, and orders of the Secretary of Labor with respect to contracts entered into by such agency or its contractors. All contracting agencies shall comply with the rules of the Secretary of Labor in discharging their primary responsibility for securing compliance with the provisions of contracts and otherwise with the terms of this Order and of the rules, regulations and orders of the Secretary of Labor issued pursuant to this Order. They are directed to cooperate with the Secretary of Labor and to furnish the Secretary of Labor such information and assistance as he may require in the performance of his functions under this Order. They are further directed to appoint or designate, from among the agency's personnel, compliance officers. It shall be the duty of such officers to seek compliance with the objectives of this Order by conference, conciliation, mediation, or persuasion.

Sec. 206. (a) The Secretary of Labor may investigate the employment practices of any Government contractor or subcontractor, or initiate such investigation by the appropriate contracting agency, to determine whether or not the contractual provisions specified in Section 202 of this Order have been violated. Such investigation shall be conducted in accordance with

the procedures established by the Secretary of Labor and the investigating agency shall report to the Secretary of Labor any action taken or recommended.

(b) The Secretary of Labor may receive and investigate or cause to be investigated complaints by employees or prospective employees of a Government contractor or subcontractor which allege discrimination contrary to the contractual provisions specified in Section 202 of this Order. If this investigation is conducted for the Secretary of Labor by a contracting agency, that agency shall report to the Secretary what action has been taken or is recommended with regard to such complaints.

Sec. 207. The Secretary of Labor shall use his best efforts, directly and through contracting agencies, other interested Federal, State, and local agencies, contractors, and all other available instrumentalities to cause any labor union engaged in work under Government contracts or any agency engaging workers or providing or supervising apprenticeship or training for or in the course of such work to cooperate in the implementation of the purposes of this Order. The Secretary of Labor shall, in appropriate cases, notify the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, the Department of Justice, or other appropriate Federal agencies whenever it has reason to believe that the practices of any such labor organization or agency violate Title VI or Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 or other provision of Federal law.

Sec. 208. (a) The Secretary of Labor, or any agency, officer, or employee in the executive branch of the Government designated by rule, regulation, or order of the Secretary, may hold such hearings, public or private, as the Secretary may deem advisable for compliance, enforcement, or educational purposes.

(b) The Secretary of Labor may hold, or cause to be held, hearings in accordance with Subsection (a) of this Section prior to imposing, ordering, or recommending the imposition of penalties and sanctions under this Order. No order for debarment of any contractor from further Government contracts under Section 209 (a)(6) shall be made without affording the contractor an opportunity for a hearing.

SUBPART D—SANCTIONS AND PENALTIES

Sec. 209. (a) In accordance with such rules, regulations, or orders as the Secretary of Labor may issue or adopt, the Secretary or the appropriate contracting agency may:

(1) Publish, or cause to be published, the names of contractors or unions which it has concluded have complied or have failed to comply with the provisions of this Order or the rules, regulations, and orders of the Secretary of Labor.

(2) Recommend to the Department of Justice that, in cases in which there is substantial or material violation or the threat of substantial or material violation of the contractual provisions set forth in Section 202 of this Order, appropriate proceedings be brought to enforce those provisions, including the enjoining, within the limitations of applicable law, of organizations, individuals, or groups who prevent directly or indirectly, or seek to prevent directly or indirectly, compliance with the provisions of this Order.

(3) Recommend to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission or the Department of Justice that appropriate proceedings be instituted under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.

(4) Recommend to the Department of Justice that criminal proceedings be brought for the furnishing of false information to any contracting agency or to the Secretary of Labor as the case may be.

(5) Cancel, terminate, suspend, or cause to be cancelled, terminated, or suspended, any contract, or any portion or portions thereof, for failure of the contractor or subcontractor to comply with the nondiscrimination provisions of the contract. Contracts may be cancelled, terminated, or suspended absolutely or continuance of contracts may be conditioned upon a program for future compliance approved by the contracting agency.

(6) Provide that any contracting agency shall refrain from entering into further contracts, or extensions or other modifications of existing contracts, with any noncomplying contractor, until such contractor has satisfied the Secretary of Labor that such contractor has established and will carry out personnel and employment policies in compliance with the provisions of this Order.

(b) Under rules and regulations prescribed by the Secretary of Labor, each contracting agency shall make reasonable efforts within a reasonable time limitation to secure compliance with the contract provisions of this Order by methods of conference, conciliation, mediation, and persuasion before proceedings shall be instituted under Subsection (a) (2) of this Section, or before a contract shall be cancelled or terminated in whole or in part under Subsection (a) (5) of this Section for failure of a contractor or subcontractor to comply with the contract provisions of this Order.

Sec. 210. Any contracting agency taking any action authorized by this Subpart, whether on its own motion, or as directed by the Secretary of Labor, or under the rules and regulations of the Secretary, shall promptly notify the Secretary of such action. Whenever the Secretary of Labor makes a determination under this Section, he shall promptly notify the appropriate contracting agency of the action recommended. The agency shall take such action and shall report the results thereof to the Secretary of Labor within such time as the Secretary shall specify.

Sec. 211. If the Secretary shall so direct, contracting agencies shall not enter into contracts with any bidder or prospective contractor unless the bidder or prospective contractor has satisfactorily complied with the provisions of this Order or submits a program for compliance acceptable to the Secretary of Labor or, if the Secretary so authorizes, to the contracting agency.

Sec. 212. Whenever a contracting agency cancels or terminates a contract, or whenever a contractor has been debarred from further Government contracts, under Section 209 (a) (6) because of noncompliance with the contract provisions with regard to nondiscrimination, the Secretary of Labor or the contracting agency involved, shall promptly notify the Comptroller General of the United States. Any such debarment may be rescinded by the Secretary of Labor or by the contracting agency which imposed the sanction.

SUBPART E—CERTIFICATES OF MERIT

Sec. 213. The Secretary of Labor may provide for issuance of a United States Government Certificate of Merit to employers or labor unions, or other agencies which are or may hereafter be engaged in

work under Government contracts, if the Secretary is satisfied that the personnel and employment practices of the employer, or that the personnel training, apprenticeship, membership, grievance and representation, upgrading, and other practices and policies of the labor union or other agency conform to the purposes and provisions of this Order.

Sec. 214. Any Certificate of Merit may at any time be suspended or revoked by the Secretary of Labor if the holder thereof, in the judgment of the Secretary, has failed to comply with the provisions of this Order.

Sec. 215. The Secretary of Labor may provide for the exemption of any employer, labor union, or other agency from any reporting requirements imposed under or pursuant to this Order if such employer, labor union, or other agency has been awarded a Certificate of Merit which has not been suspended or revoked.

PART III—Nondiscrimination Provisions in Federally Assisted Construction Contracts

Sec. 301. Each executive department and agency which administers a program involving Federal financial assistance shall require as a condition for the approval of any grant, contract, loan, insurance, or guarantee thereunder, which may involve a construction contract, that the applicant for Federal assistance undertake and agree to incorporate, or cause to be incorporated, into all construction contracts paid for in whole or in part with funds obtained from the Federal Government or borrowed on the credit of the Federal Government pursuant to such grant, contract, loan, insurance, or guarantee, or undertaken pursuant to any Federal program involving such grant, contract, loan, insurance, or guarantee, the provisions prescribed for Government contracts by Section 203 of this Order or such modification thereof, preserving in substance the contractor's obligations thereunder, as may be approved by the Secretary of Labor, together with such additional provisions as the Secretary deems appropriate to establish and protect the interest of the United States in the enforcement of those obligations. Each such applicant shall also undertake and agree (1) to assist and cooperate actively with the administering department or agency and the Secretary of Labor in obtaining the compliance of contractors and subcontractors with those contract provisions and with the rules, regulations, and relevant orders of the Secretary, (2) to obtain and

to furnish to the administering department or agency and to the Secretary of Labor such information as they may require for the supervision of such compliance, (3) to carry out sanctions and penalties for violation of such obligations imposed upon contractors and subcontractors by the Secretary of Labor or the administering department or agency pursuant to Part II, Subpart D, of this Order, and (4) to refrain from entering into any contract subject to this Order, or extension or other modification of such a contract with a contractor debarred from Government contracts under Part II, Subpart D, of this Order.

Sec. 302. (a) "Construction contract" as used in this Order means any contract for the construction, rehabilitation, alteration, conversion, extension, or repair of buildings, highways, or other improvements to real property.

(b) The provisions of Part II of this Order shall apply to such construction contracts, and for purposes of such application the administering department or agency shall be considered the contracting agency referred to therein.

(c) The term "applicant" as used in this Order means an applicant for Federal assistance or, as determined by agency regulation, other program participant, with respect to whom an application for any grant, contract, loan, insurance, or guarantee is not finally acted upon prior to the effective date of this Part, and it includes such an applicant after he becomes a recipient of such Federal assistance.

Sec. 303 (a) Each administering department and agency shall be responsible for obtaining the compliance of such applicants with their undertakings under this Order. Each administering department and agency is directed to cooperate with the Secretary of Labor, and to furnish the Secretary such information and assistance as he may require in the performance of his functions under this Order.

(b) In the event an applicant fails and refuses to comply with his undertakings; the administering department or agency may take any or all of the following actions: (1) cancel, terminate, or suspend in whole or in part the agreement, contract, or other arrangement with such applicant with respect to which the failure and refusal occurred; (2) refrain from extending any further assistance to the applicant under the program with respect to which the failure or refusal occurred until satisfactory assurance of future compliance has been received from such applicant; and (3) refer the case to the Department of Justice for appropriate legal proceedings.

(c) Any action with respect to an applicant pursuant to Subsection (b) shall be taken in conformity with Section 602 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (and the regulations of the administering department or agency issued thereunder), to the extent applicable. In no case shall action be taken with respect to an applicant pursuant to Clause (1) or (2) of Subsection (b) without notice and opportunity for hearing before the administering department or agency.

Sec. 304. Any executive department or agency which imposes by rule, regulation, or order requirements of non-discrimination in employment, other than requirements imposed pursuant to this Order, may delegate to the Secretary of Labor by agreement such responsibilities with respect to compliance standards, reports, and procedures as would tend to bring the administration of such requirements into conformity with the administration of requirements imposed under this Order: *Provided*, That actions to effect compliance by recipients of Federal finan-

cial assistance with requirements imposed pursuant to Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 shall be taken in conformity with the procedures and limitations prescribed in Section 602 thereof and the regulations of the administering department or agency issued thereunder.

PART IV—Miscellaneous

Sec. 401. The Secretary of Labor may delegate to any officer, agency, or employee in the Executive branch of the Government, any function or duty of the Secretary under Parts II and III of this Order, except authority to promulgate rules and regulations of a general nature.

Sec. 402. The Secretary of Labor shall provide administrative support for the execution of the program known as the "Plans for Progress."

Sec. 403. (a) Executive Orders Nos. 10590 (January 18, 1955), 10722 (August 5, 1957), 10925 (March 6, 1961), 11114 (June 22, 1963), and 11162 (July 28, 1964) are hereby superseded and the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity established by Executive Order No. 10925 is hereby abolished. All records and property in the custody of the Committee shall be transferred to the Civil Service Commission and the Secretary of Labor, as appropriate.

(b) Nothing in this Order shall be deemed to relieve any person of any obligation assumed or imposed under or pursuant to any executive order superseded by this Order. All rules, regulations, orders, instructions, designations, and other directives issued by the President's Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity and those issued by the heads of various departments or agencies under or pursuant to any of the executive orders

superseded by this Order, shall, to the extent that they are not inconsistent with this Order, remain in full force and effect unless and until revoked or superseded by appropriate authority. References in such directives to provisions of the superseded orders shall be deemed to be references to the comparable provisions of this Order.

Sec. 404. The General Services Administration shall take appropriate action to revise the standard Government contract forms to accord with the provisions of this Order and of the rules and regulations of the Secretary of Labor.

Sec. 405. This Order shall become effective 30 days after the date of this Order.

The Department of Labor is responsible for enforcement of this Executive Order. Contract compliance responsibilities have been assigned to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare for HEW-assisted construction contractors and for government contractors in the following industries:

Insurance

Insurance Agents

Medical, Legal and Education Services

Museums, Art Galleries

Non-Profit Organizations

Certain State and Local Governments

Within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the contract compliance program is administered by

Contract Compliance Division

Office for Civil Rights

Washington, D.C. 20201

(202) 963-5707

(An inquiry concerning insurance companies as government contractors should be directed to the Special Staff for Labor Relations and Equal Employment Opportunity, Social Security Administration, Baltimore, Maryland 21235.)

Requests for additional information regarding the HEW civil rights compliance program may be directed to the Office for Civil Rights in Washington, D. C. or to the Regional Office serving your State.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
OFFICE OF FEDERAL CONTRACT COMPLIANCE
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20210

CHAPTER 60 -- Office of Federal Contract Compliance, Equal Employment Opportunity, Department of Labor

(Reprint from FEDERAL REGISTER, VOL. 36, NO. 234—SATURDAY, DECEMBER 4, 197[illegible])

Title 41—PUBLIC CONTRACTS AND PROPERTY MANAGEMENT

Chapter 60—Office of Federal Contract Compliance, Equal Employment Opportunity, Department of Labor

PART 60–2—AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMS

On August 31, 1971, notice of proposed rule making was published in the FEDERAL REGISTER (36 F.R. 17444) with regard to amending Chapter 60 of Title 41 of the Code of Federal Regulations by adding a new Part 60–2, dealing with affirmative action programs. Interested persons were given 30 days in which to submit written comments, suggestions, or objections regarding the proposed amendments.

Having considered all relevant material submitted, I have decided to, and do hereby amend Chapter 60 of Title 41 of the Code of Federal Regulations by adding a new Part 60–2, reading as follows:

Subpart A—General

Sec.
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AUTHORITY: The provisions of this Part 60–2 issued pursuant to sec. 201, Executive Order 11246 (30 F.R. 12319).

Subpart A—General

§ 60–2.1 Title, purpose and scope.

This part shall also be known as "Revised Order No. 4." and shall cover nonconstruction contractors. Section 60–1.40 of this Chapter, Affirmative Action Compliance Programs, requires that within 120 days from the commencement of a contract each prime contractor or subcontractor with 50 or more employees and a contract of $50,000 or more develop a written affirmative action compliance program for each of its establishments, and such contractors are now further required to revise existing written affirmative action programs to include the changes embodied in this order within 120 days of its publication in the FEDERAL REGISTER. A review of agency compliance surveys indicates that many contractors do not have affirmative action programs on file at the time an establishment is visited by a compliance investigator. This part details the agency review procedure and the results of a contractor's failure to develop and maintain an affirmative action program and then set forth detailed guidelines to be used by contractors and Government agencies in developing and judging these programs as well as the good faith effort required to transform the programs from paper commitments to equal employment opportunity. Subparts B and C are concerned with affirmative action plans only.

Relief for members of an "affected class" who, by virtue of past discrimination, continue to suffer the present effects of that discrimination must either be included in the contractor's affirmative action program or be embodied in a separate written "corrective action" program. An "affected class" problem must be remedied in order for a contractor to be considered in compliance. Section 60–2.2 herein pertaining to an acceptable affirmative action program is also applicable to the failure to remedy discrimination against members of an "affected class."

§ 60–2.2 Agency action.

(a) Any contractor required by § 60–1.40 of this chapter to develop an affirmative action program at each of his establishments who has not complied fully with that section is not in compliance with Executive Order 11246, as amended (30 F.R. 12319). Until such programs are developed and found to be acceptable in accordance with the standards and guidelines set forth in §§ 60–2.10 through 60–2.32, the contractor is unable to comply with the equal employment opportunity clause.

(b) If, in determining such contractor's responsibility for an award of a contract it comes to the contracting officer's attention, through sources within his agency or through the Office of Federal Contract Compliance or other Government agencies, that the contractor has not developed an acceptable affirmative action program at each of his establishments, the contracting officer shall notify the Director and declare the contractor-bidder nonresponsible unless he can otherwise affirmatively determine that the contractor is able to comply with his equal employment obligations or, unless, upon review, it is determined by the Director that substantial issues of law or fact exist as to the contractor's responsibility to the extent that a hearing is, in his sole judgment, required prior to a determination that the contractor is nonresponsible: *Provided*, That during any pre-award conferences every effort shall be made through the processes of conciliation, mediation and persuasion to develop an acceptable affirmative action program meeting the standards and guidelines set forth in §§ 60–2.10 through 60–2.32 so that, in the performance of his contract, the contractor is able to meet his equal employment obligations in accordance with the equal opportunity clause and applicable rules, regulations, and orders: *Provided further*, That when the contractor-bidder is declared nonresponsible more than once for inability to comply with the equal employment opportunity clause a notice setting a timely hearing date shall be issued concurrently with the second nonresponsibility determination in accordance with the provisions of § 60–1.26 proposing to declare such contractor-bidder ineligible for future contracts and subcontracts.

(c) Immediately upon finding that a contractor has no affirmative action program or that his program is not acceptable to the contracting officer, the compliance agency representative or the representative of the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, whichever has made such a finding, shall notify officials of the appropriate compliance agency and the Office of Federal Contract Compliance of such fact. The compliance agency shall issue a notice to the contractor giving him 30 days to show cause why enforcement proceedings under section 209(b) of Executive Order 11246, as amended, should not be instituted.

(1) If the contractor fails to show good cause for his failure or fails to remedy that failure by developing and implementing an acceptable affirmative action program within 30 days, the compliance agency, upon the approval of the

Director, shall immediately issue a notice of proposed cancellation or termination of existing contracts or subcontracts and debarment from future contracts and subcontracts pursuant to § 60–1.26(b), giving the contractor 10 days to request a hearing. If a request for hearing has not been received within 10 days from such notice, such contractor will be declared ineligible for future contracts and current contracts will be terminated for default.

(2) During the "show cause" period of 30 days every effort shall be made by the compliance agency through conciliation, mediation, and persuasion to resolve the deficiencies which led to the determination of nonresponsibility. If satisfactory adjustments designed to bring the contractor into compliance are not concluded, the compliance agency, with the prior approval of the Director, shall promptly commence formal proceedings leading to the cancellation or termination of existing contracts or subcontracts and debarment from future contracts and subcontracts under § 60–1.26(b) of this chapter.

(d) During the "show cause" period and formal proceedings, each contracting agency must continue to determine the contractor's responsibility in considering whether or not to award a new or additional contract.

Subpart B—Required Contents of Affirmative Action Programs

§ 60–2.10 Purpose of affirmative action program.

An affirmative action program is a set of specific and result-oriented procedures to which a contractor commits himself to apply every good faith effort. The objective of those procedures plus such efforts is equal employment opportunity. Procedures without effort to make them work are meaningless; and effort, undirected by specific and meaningful procedures, is inadequate. An acceptable affirmative action program must include an analysis of areas within which the contractor is deficient in the utilization of minority groups and women, and further, goals and timetables to which the contractor's good faith efforts must be directed to correct the deficiencies and, thus to increase materially the utilization of minorities and women, at all levels and in all segments of his work force where deficiencies exist.

§ 60–2.11 Required utilization analysis.

Based upon the Government's experience with compliance reviews under the Executive order programs and the contractor reporting system, minority groups are most likely to be underutilized in departments and jobs within departments that fall within the following Employer's Information Report (EEO–1) designations: officials and managers, professionals, technicians, sales workers, office and clerical and craftsmen (skilled). As categorized by the EEO–1 designations, women are likely to be underutilized in departments and jobs within departments as follows: officials and managers, professionals, technicians, sales workers (except over-the-counter sales in certain retail establishments), craftsmen (skilled and semi-skilled). Therefore, the contractor shall direct special attention to such jobs in his analysis and goal setting for minorities and women. Affirmative action programs must contain the following information:

(a) An analysis of all major job classifications at the facility, with explanation if minorities or women are currently being underutilized in any one or more job classifications (job "classification" herein meaning one or a group of jobs having similar content, wage rates and opportunities). "Underutilization" is defined as having fewer minorities or women in a particular job classification than would reasonably be expected by their availability. In making the work force analysis, the contractor shall conduct such analysis separately for minorities and women.

(1) In determining whether minorities are being underutilized in any job classification the contractor will consider at least all of the following factors:

(i) The minority population of the labor area surrounding the facility;

(ii) The size of the minority unemployment force in the labor area surrounding the facility;

(iii) The percentage of the minority work force as compared with the total work force in the immediate labor area;

(iv) The general availability of minorities having requisite skills in the immediate labor area;

(v) The availability of minorities having requisite skills in an area in which the contractor can reasonably recruit;

(vi) The availability of promotable and transferable minorities within the contractor's organization;

(vii) The existence of training institutions capable of training persons in the requisite skills; and

(viii) The degree of training which the contractor is reasonably able to undertake as a means of making all job classes available to minorities.

(2) In determining whether women are being underutilized in any job classification, the contractor will consider at least all of the following factors:

(i) The size of the female unemployment force in the labor area surrounding the facility;

(ii) The percentage of the female workforce as compared with the total workforce in the immediate labor area;

(iii) The general availability of women having requisite skills in the immediate labor area;

(iv) The availability of women having requisite skills in an area in which the contractor can reasonably recruit;

(v) The availability of women seeking employment in the labor or recruitment area of the contractor;

(vi) The availability of promotable and transferable female employees within the contractor's organization;

(vii) The existence of training institutions capable of training persons in the requisite skills; and

(viii) The degree of training which the contractor is reasonably able to undertake as a means of making all job classes available to women.

§ 60–2.12 Establishment of goals and timetables.

(a) The goals and timetables developed by the contractor should be attainable in terms of the contractor's analysis of his deficiencies and his entire affirmative action program. Thus, in establishing the size of his goals and the length of his timetables, the contractor should consider the results which could reasonably be expected from his putting forth every good faith effort to make his overall affirmative action program work. In determining levels of goals, the contractor should consider at least the factors listed in § 60–2.11.

(b) Involve personnel relations staff, department and division heads, and local and unit managers in the goal setting process.

(c) Goals should be significant, measurable and attainable.

(d) Goals should be specific for planned results, with timetables for completion.

(e) Goals may not be rigid and inflexible quotas which must be met, but must be targets reasonably attainable by means of applying every good faith effort to make all aspects of the entire affirmative action program work.

(f) In establishing timetables to meet goals and commitments, the contractor will consider the anticipated expansion, contraction and turnover of and in the work force.

(g) Goals, timetables and affirmative action commitments must be designed to correct any identifiable deficiencies.

(h) Where deficiencies exist and where numbers or percentages are relevant in developing corrective action, the contractor shall establish and set forth specific goals and timetables separately for minorities and women.

(i) Such goals and timetables, with supporting data and the analysis thereof shall be a part of the contractor's written affirmative action program and shall be maintained at each establishment of the contractor.

(j) Where the contractor has not established a goal, his written affirmative action program must specifically analyze each of the factors listed in 60–2.11 and must detail his reason for a lack of a goal.

(k) In the event it comes to the attention of the compliance agency or the Office of Federal Contract Compliance that there is a substantial disparity in the utilization of a particular minority group or men or women of a particular minority group, the compliance agency or OFCC may require separate goals and timetables for such minority group and may further require, where appropriate, such goals and timetables by sex for such group for such job classifications and organizational units specified by the compliance agency or OFCC.

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(l) Support data for the required analysis and program shall be compiled and maintained as part of the contractor's affirmative action program. This data will include but not be limited to progression line charts, seniority rosters, applicant flow data, and applicant rejection ratios indicating minority and sex status.

(m) Copies of affirmative action programs and/or copies of support data shall be made available to the compliance agency or the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, at the request of either, for such purposes as may be appropriate to the fulfillment of their responsibilities under Executive Order 11246, as amended.

§ 60–2.13 Additional required ingredients of affirmative action programs.

Effective affirmative action programs shall contain, but not necessarily be limited to, the following ingredients:

(a) Development or reaffirmation of the contractor's equal employment opportunity policy in all personnel actions.

(b) Formal internal and external dissemination of the contractor's policy.

(c) Establishment of responsibilities for implementation of the contractor's affirmative action program.

(d) Identification of problem areas (deficiencies) by organizational units and job classification.

(e) Establishment of goals and objectives by organizational units and job classification, including timetables for completion.

(f) Development and execution of action oriented programs designed to eliminate problems and further designed to attain established goals and objectives.

(g) Design and implementation of internal audit and reporting systems to measure effectiveness of the total program.

(h) Compliance or personnel policies and practices with the Sex Discrimination Guidelines (41 CFR Part 60–20).

(i) Active support of local and national community action programs and community service programs, designed to improve the employment opportunities of minorities and women.

(j) Consideration of minorities and women not currently in the workforce having requisite skills who can be recruited through affirmative action measures.

§ 60–2.14 Compliance status.

No contractor's compliance status shall be judged alone by whether or not he reaches his goals and meets his timetables. Rather, each contractor's compliance posture shall be reviewed and determined by reviewing the contents of his program, the extent of his adherence to this program, and his good faith efforts to make his program work toward the realization of the program's goals within the timetables set for completion. There follows an outline of examples of procedures that contractors and Federal agencies should use as a guideline for establishing, implementing, and judging an acceptable affirmative action program.

Subpart C—Methods of Implementing the Requirements of Subpart B

§ 60–2.20 Development or reaffirmation of the equal employment opportunity policy.

(a) The contractor's policy statement should indicate the chief executive officers' attitude on the subject matter, assign overall responsibility and provide for a reporting and monitoring procedure. Specific items to be mentioned should include, but not limited to:

(1) Recruit, hire, train, and promote persons in all job classifications, without regard to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, except where sex is a bona fide occupational qualification. (The term "bona fide occupational qualification" has been construed very narrowly under the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Under Executive Order 11246 as amended and this part, this term will be construed in the same manner.)

(2) Base decisions on employment so as to further the principle of equal employment opportunity.

(3) Insure that promotion decisions are in accord with principles of equal employment opportunity by imposing only valid requirements for promotional opportunities.

(4) Insure that all personnel actions such as compensation, benefits, transfers, layoffs, return from layoff, company sponsored training, education, tuition assistance, social and recreation programs, will be administered without regard to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

§ 60–2.21 Dissemination of the policy.

(a) The contractor should disseminate his policy internally as follows:

(1) Include it in contractor's policy manual.

(2) Publicize it in company newspaper, magazine, annual report and other media.

(3) Conduct special meetings with executive, management, and supervisory personnel to explain intent of policy and individual responsibility for effective implementation, making clear the chief executive officer's attitude.

(4) Schedule special meetings with all other employees to discuss policy and explain individual employee responsibilities.

(5) Discuss the policy thoroughly in both employee orientation and management training programs.

(6) Meet with union officials to inform them of policy, and request their cooperation.

(7) Include nondiscrimination clauses in all union agreements, and review all contractual provisions to ensure they are nondiscriminatory.

(8) Publish articles covering EEO programs, progress reports, promotions, etc., of minority and female employees, in company publications.

(9) Post the policy on company bulletin boards.

(10) When employees are featured in product or consumer advertising, employee handbooks or similar publications both minority and nonminority, men and women should be pictured.

(11) Communicate to employees the existence of the contractors affirmative action program and make available such elements of his program as will enable such employees to know of and avail themselves of its benefits.

(b) The contractor should disseminate his policy externally as follows:

(1) Inform all recruiting sources verbally and in writing of company policy, stipulating that these sources actively recruit and refer minorities and women for all positions listed.

(2) Incorporate the Equal Opportunity clause in all purchase orders, leases, contracts, etc., covered by Executive Order 11246, as amended, and its implementing regulations.

(3) Notify minority and women's organizations, community agencies, community leaders, secondary schools and colleges, of company policy, preferably in writing.

(4) Communicate to prospective employees the existence of the contractor's affirmative action program and make available such elements of his program as will enable such prospective employees to know of and avail themselves of its benefits.

(5) When employees are pictured in consumer or help wanted advertising, both minorities and nonminority men and women should be shown.

(6) Send written notification of company policy to all subcontractors, vendors and suppliers requesting appropriate action on their part.

§ 60–2.22 Responsibility for implementation.

(a) An executive of the contractor should be appointed as director or manager of company Equal Opportunity Programs. Depending upon the size and geographical alignment of the company, this may be his or her sole responsibility. He or she should be given the necessary top management support and staffing to execute the assignment. His or her identity should appear on all internal and external communications on the company's Equal Opportunity Programs. His or her responsibilities should include, but not necessarily be limited to:

(1) Developing policy statements, affirmative action programs, internal and external communication techniques.

(2) Assisting in the identification of problem areas.

(3) Assisting line management in arriving at solutions to problems.

(4) Designing and implementing audit and reporting systems that will:

(i) Measure effectiveness of the contractor's programs.

(ii) Indicate need for remedial action.

(iii) Determine the degree to which the contractor's goals and objectives have been attained.

(5) Serve as liaison between the contractor and enforcement agencies.

(6) Serve as liaison between the contractor and minority organizations, women's organizations and community action groups concerned with employment opportunities of minorities and women.

(7) Keep management informed of latest developments in the entire equal opportunity area.

(b) Line responsibilities should include, but not be limited to, the following:

(1) Assistance in the identification of problem areas and establishment of local and unit goals and objectives.

(2) Active involvement with local minority organizations, women's organizations, community action groups and community service programs.

(3) Periodic audit of training programs, hiring and promotion patterns to remove impediments to the attainment of goals and objectives.

(4) Regular discussions with local managers, supervisors and employees to be certain the contractor's policies are being followed.

(5) Review of the qualifications of all employees to insure that minorities and women are given full opportunities for transfers and promotions.

(6) Career counseling for all employees.

(7) Periodic audit to insure that each location is in compliance in area such as:

(i) Posters are properly displayed.

(ii) All facilities, including company housing, which the contractor maintains for the use and benefit of his employees, are in fact desegregated, both in policy and use. If the contractor provides facilities such as dormitories, locker rooms and rest rooms, they must be comparable for both sexes.

(iii) Minority and female employees are afforded a full opportunity and are encouraged to participate in all company sponsored educational, training, recreational and social activities.

(8) Supervisors should be made to understand that their work performance is being evaluated on the basis of their equal employment opportunity efforts and results, as well as other criteria.

(9) It shall be a responsibility of supervisors to take actions to prevent harassment of employees placed through affirmative action efforts.

§ 60–2.23 Identification of problem areas by organizational units and job classifications.

(a) An in-depth analysis of the following should be made, paying particular attention to trainees and those categories listed in § 60–2.11(d).

(1) Composition of the work force by minority group status and sex.

(2) Composition of applicant flow by minority group status and sex.

(3) The total selection process including position descriptions, position titles, worker specifications, application forms, interview procedures, test administration, test validity, referral procedures, final selection process, and similar factors.

(4) Transfer and promotion practices.

(5) Facilities, company sponsored recreation and social events, and special programs such as educational assistance.

(6) Seniority practices and seniority provisions of union contracts.

(7) Apprenticeship programs.

(8) All company training programs, formal and informal.

(9) Work force attitude.

(10) Technical phases of compliance, such as poster and notification to labor unions, retention of applications, notification to subcontractors, etc.

(b) If any of the following items are found in the analysis, special corrective action should be appropriate.

(1) An "underutilization" of minorities or women in specific work classifications.

(2) Lateral and/or vertical movement of minority or female employees occurring at a lesser rate (compared to work force mix) than that of nonminority or male employees.

(3) The selection process eliminates a significantly higher percentage of minorities or women than nonminorities or men.

(4) Application and related preemployment forms not in compliance with Federal legislation.

(5) Position descriptions inaccurate in relation to actual functions and duties.

(6) Tests and other selection techniques not validated as required by the OFCC Order on Employee Testing and other Selection Procedures.

(7) Test forms not validated by location, work performance and inclusion of minorities and women in sample.

(8) Referral ratio of minorities or women to the hiring supervisor or manager indicates a significantly higher percentage are being rejected as compared to nonminority and male applicants.

(9) Minorities or women are excluded from or are not participating in company sponsored activities or programs.

(10) De facto segregation still exists at some facilities.

(11) Seniority provisions contribute to overt or inadvertent discrimination, i.e., a disparity by minority group status or sex exists between length of service and types of job held.

(12) Nonsupport of company policy by managers, supervisors or employees.

(13) Minorities or women underutilized or significantly underrepresented in training or career improvement programs.

(14) No formal techniques established for evaluating effectiveness of EEO programs.

(15) Lack of access to suitable housing inhibits recruitment efforts and employment of qualified minorities.

(16) Lack of suitable transportation (public or private) to the work place inhibits minority employment.

(17) Labor unions and subcontractors not notified of their responsibilities.

(18) Purchase orders do not contain EEO clause.

(19) Posters not on display.

§ 60–2.24 Development and execution of programs.

(a) The contractor should conduct detailed analyses of position descriptions to insure that they accurately reflect position functions, and are consistent for the same position from one location to another.

(b) The contractor should validate worker specifications by division, department, location or other organizational unit and by job category using job performance criteria. Special attention should be given to academic, experience and skill requirements to insure that the requirements in themselves do not constitute inadvertent discrimination. Specifications should be consistent for the same job classification in all locations and should be free from bias as regards to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, except where sex is a bona fide occupational qualification. Where requirements screen out a disproportionate number of minorities or women such requirements should be professionally validated to job performance.

(c) Approved position descriptions and worker specifications, when used by the contractor, should be made available to all members of management involved in the recruiting, screening, selection, and promotion process. Copies should also be distributed to all recruiting sources.

(d) The contractor should evaluate the total selection process to insure freedom from bias and, thus, aid the attainment of goals and objectives.

(1) All personnel involved in the recruiting, screening, selection, promotion, disciplinary, and related processes should be carefully selected and trained to insure elimination of bias in all personnel actions.

(2) The contractor shall observe the requirements of the OFCC Order pertaining to the validation of employee tests and other selection procedures.

(3) Selection techniques other than tests may also be improperly used so as to have the effect of discriminating against minority groups and women. Such techniques include but are not restricted to, unscored interviews, unscored or casual application forms, arrest records, credit checks, considerations of marital status or dependency or minor children. Where there exist data suggesting that such unfair discrimination or exclusion of minorities or women exists, the contractor should analyze his unscored procedures and eliminate them if they are not objectively valid.

(e) Suggested techniques to improve recruitment and increase the flow of minority or female applicants follow:

(1) Certain organizations such as the Urban League, Job Corps, Equal Opportunity Programs, Inc., Concentrated Employment Programs, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Secondary Schools, Colleges, and City Colleges with high minority enrollment, the State Employment Service, specialized employment agencies, Aspira, LULAC, SER, the G.I. Forum, the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico are normally prepared to refer minority applicants. Organizations prepared to refer women with specific skills are: National Organization for Women, Welfare Rights Organizations, Women's Equity Action League, Talent Bank from Business and Professional Women (including 26 women's organizations), Professional Women's Caucus, Intercollegiate Association of University Women, Negro Women's sororities and service

groups such as Delta Sigma Theta, Alpha Kappa Alpha, and Zeta Phi Beta; National Council of Negro Women, American Association of University Women, YWCA, and sectarian groups such as Jewish Women's Groups, Catholic Women's Groups and Protestant Women's Groups, and women's colleges. In addition, community leaders as individuals shall be added to recruiting sources.

(2) Formal briefing sessions should be held, preferably on company premises, with representatives from these recruiting sources. Plant tours, presentations by minority and female employees, clear and concise explanations of current and future job openings, position descriptions, worker specifications, explanations of the company's selection process, and recruiting literature should be an integral part of the briefings. Formal arrangements should be made for referral of applicants, followup with sources, and feedback on disposition of applicants.

(3) Minority and female employees, using procedures similar to subparagraph (2) of this paragraph, should be actively encouraged to refer applicants.

(4) A special effort should be made to include minorities and women on the Personnel Relations staff.

(5) Minority and female employees should be made available for participation in Career Days, Youth Motivation Programs, and related activities in their communities.

(6) Active participation in "Job Fairs" is desirable. Company representatives so participating should be given authority to make on-the-spot commitments.

(7) Active recruiting programs should be carried out at secondary schools, junior colleges, and colleges with predominant minority or female enrollments.

(8) Recruiting efforts at all schools should incorporate special efforts to reach minorities and women.

(9) Special employment programs should be undertaken whenever possible. Some possible programs are:

(i) Technical and nontechnical co-op programs with predominately Negro and women's colleges.

(ii) "After school" and/or work-study jobs for minority youths, male and females.

(iii) Summer jobs for underprivileged youth, male and female.

(iv) Summer work-study programs for male and female faculty members of the predominantly minority schools and colleges.

(v) Motivation, training and employment programs for the hard-core unemployed, male and female.

(10) When recruiting brochures pictorially present work situations, the minority and female members of the work force should be included, especially when such brochures are used in school and career programs.

(11) Help wanted advertising should be expanded to include the minority news media and women's interest media on a regular basis.

(f) The contractor should insure that minority and female employees are given equal opportunity for promotion. Suggestions for achieving this result include:

(1) Post or otherwise announce promotional opportunities.

(2) Make an inventory of current minority and female employees to determine academic, skill and experience level of individual employees.

(3) Initiate necessary remedial, job training and workstudy programs.

(4) Develop and implement formal employee evaluation programs.

(5) Make certain "worker specifications" have been validated on job performance related criteria. (Neither minority nor female employees should be required to possess higher qualifications than those of the lowest qualified incumbent.)

(6) When apparently qualified minority or female employees are passed over for upgrading, require supervisory personnel to submit written justification.

(7) Establish formal career counseling programs to include attitude development, education aid, job rotation, buddy system and similar programs.

(8) Review seniority practices and seniority clauses in union contracts to insure such practices or clauses are nondiscriminatory and do not have a discriminatory effect.

(g) Make certain facilities and company-sponsored social and recreation activities are desegregated. Actively encourage all employees to participate.

(h) Encourage child care, housing and transportation programs appropriately designed to improve the employment opportunities for minorities and women.

§ 60–2.25 Internal audit and reporting systems.

(a) The contractor should monitor records of referrals, placements, transfers, promotions and terminations at all levels to insure nondiscriminatory policy is carried out.

(b) The contractor should require formal reports from unit managers on a schedule basis as to degree to which corporate or unit goals are attained and timetables met.

(c) The contractor should review report results with all levels of management.

(d) The contractor should advise top management of program effectiveness and submit recommendations to improve unsatisfactory performance.

§ 60–2.26 Support of action programs.

(a) The contractor should appoint key members of management to serve on Merit Employment Councils, Community Relations Boards and similar organizations.

(b) The contractor should encourage minority and female employees to participate actively in National Alliance of Businessmen programs for youth motivation.

(c) The contractor should support Vocational Guidance Institutes, Vestibule Training Programs and similar activities.

(d) The contractor should assist secondary schools and colleges in programs designed to enable minority and female graduates of these institutions to compete in the open employment market on a more equitable basis.

(e) The contractor should publicize achievements of minority and female employees in local and minority news media.

(f) The contractor should support programs developed by such organizations as National Alliance of Businessmen, the Urban Coalition and other organizations concerned with employment opportunities for minorities or women.

Subpart D—Miscellaneous

§ 60–2.30 Use of goals.

The purpose of a contractor's establishment and use of goals is to insure that he meet his affirmative action obligation. It is not intended and should not be used to discriminate against any applicant or employee because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

§ 60–2.31 Preemption.

To the extent that any State or local laws, regulations or ordinances, including those which grant special benefits to persons on account of sex, are in conflict with Executive Order 11246, as amended, or with the requirements of this part, we will regard them as preempted under the Executive order.

§ 60–2.32 Supersedure.

All orders, instructions, regulations, and memoranda of the Secretary of Labor, other officials of the Department of Labor and contracting agencies are hereby superseded to the extent that they are inconsistent herewith, including a previous "Order No. 4" from this Office dated January 30, 1970. Nothing in this part is intended to amend 41 CFR 60–3 published in the FEDERAL REGISTER on October 2, 1971 or Employee Testing and Other Selection Procedures or 41 CFR 60–20 on Sex Discrimination Guidelines.

Effective date. This part shall become effective on the date of its publication in the FEDERAL REGISTER (12–4–71).

Signed at Washington, D.C., this 1st day of December 1971.

J. D. HODGSON,
Secretary of Labor.

HORACE E. MENASCO,
Acting Assistant Secretary for Employment Standards.

JOHN L. WILKS,
Director, Office of Federal Contract Compliance.

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Public Law 92-318
92nd Congress, S. 659
June 23, 1972

TITLE IX—PROHIBITION OF SEX DISCRIMINATION

SEX DISCRIMINATION PROHIBITED

SEC. 901. (a) No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance, except that:

Exceptions.

(1) in regard to admissions to educational institutions, this section shall apply only to institutions of vocational education, professional education, and graduate higher education, and to public institutions of undergraduate higher education;

(2) in regard to admissions to educational institutions, this section shall not apply (A) for one year from the date of enactment of this Act, nor for six years after such date in the case of an educational institution which has begun the process of changing from being an institution which admits only students of one sex to being an institution which admits students of both sexes, but only if it is carrying out a plan for such a change which is approved by the Commissioner of Education or (B) for seven years from the date an educational institution begins the process of changing from being an institution which admits only students of only one sex to being an institution which admits students of both sexes, but only if it is carrying out a plan for such a change which is approved by the Commissioner of Education, whichever is the later;

(3) this section shall not apply to an educational institution which is controlled by a religious organization if the application of this subsection would not be consistent with the religious tenets of such organization;

(4) this section shall not apply to an educational institution whose primary purpose is the training of individuals for the military services of the United States, or the merchant marine; and

(5) in regard to admissions this section shall not apply to any public institution of undergraduate higher education which is an institution that traditionally and continually from its establishment has had a policy of admitting only students of one sex.

(b) Nothing contained in subsection (a) of this section shall be interpreted to require any educational institution to grant preferential or disparate treatment to the members of one sex on account of an imbalance which may exist with respect to the total number or percentage of persons of that sex participating in or receiving the benefits of any federally supported program or activity, in comparison with the total number or percentage of persons of that sex in any community, State, section, or other area: *Provided*, That this subsection shall not be construed to prevent the consideration in any hearing or proceeding under this title of statistical evidence tending to show that such an imbalance exists with respect to the participation in, or receipt of the benefits of, any such program or activity by the members of one sex.

Definition.

(c) For purposes of this title an educational institution means any public or private preschool, elementary, or secondary school, or any institution of vocational, professional, or higher education, except that in the case of an educational institution composed of more than one school, college, or department which are administratively separate units, such term means each such school, college, or department.

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FEDERAL ADMINISTRATIVE ENFORCEMENT

SEC. 902. Each Federal department and agency which is empowered to extend Federal financial assistance to any education program or activity, by way of grant, loan, or contract other than a contract of insurance or guaranty, is authorized and directed to effectuate the provisions of section 901 with respect to such program or activity by issuing rules, regulations, or orders of general applicability which shall be consistent with achievement of the objectives of the statute authorizing the financial assistance in connection with which the action is taken. No such rule, regulation, or order shall become effective unless and until approved by the President. Compliance with any requirement adopted pursuant to this section may be effected (1) by the termination of or refusal to grant or to continue assistance under such program or activity to any recipient as to whom there has been an express finding on the record, after opportunity for hearing, of a failure to comply with such requirement, but such termination or refusal shall be limited to the particular political entity, or part thereof, or other recipient as to whom such a finding has been made, and shall be limited in its effect to the particular program, or part thereof, in which such noncompliance has been so found, or (2) by any other means authorized by law: *Provided, however*, That no such action shall be taken until the department or agency concerned has advised the appropriate person or persons of the failure to comply with the requirement and has determined that compliance cannot be secured by voluntary means. In the case of any action terminating, or refusing to grant or continue, assistance because of failure to comply with a requirement imposed pursuant to this section, the head of the Federal department or agency shall file with the committees of the House and Senate having legislative jurisdiction over the program or activity involved a full written report of the circumstances and the grounds for such action. No such action shall become effective until thirty days have elapsed after the filing of such report.

Report to congressional committees.

JUDICIAL REVIEW

SEC. 903. Any department or agency action taken pursuant to section 1002 shall be subject to such judicial review as may otherwise be provided by law for similar action taken by such department or agency on other grounds. In the case of action, not otherwise subject to judicial review, terminating or refusing to grant or to continue financial assistance upon a finding of failure to comply with any requirement imposed pursuant to section 902, any person aggrieved (including any State or political subdivision thereof and any agency of either) may obtain judicial review of such action in accordance with chapter 7 of title 5, United States Code, and such action shall not be deemed committed to unreviewable agency discretion within the meaning of section 701 of that title.

MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION

Forty States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have minimum wage laws with minimum rates currently in effect. All but three apply to both men and women. State minimum rates vary from $1 to $2.60 an hour. Some States provide for upward adjustment as the Federal rate is increased. Federal law provides that where the State rate is higher, it will prevail. None of the laws covering only women set a higher rate than the Federal law, although some overtime provisions for women are more liberal.

The Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA) of 1938 established a 25-cent-an-hour minimum wage for covered employment, with a gradual increase to a 40-cent minimum after 7 years. The law has been amended from time to time—most recently in 1974—to increase the minimum rate and to extend coverage to new groups of employees.

The FLSA does not limit the hours that an employee may work, but it does require premium pay of 1½ times an employee's regular rate for hours after a specified workweek—generally 40 hours.

The 1974 amendments raised minimum rates for workers already covered by the act. They also extended coverage to nearly 7.4 million workers, bringing to 56 million the total number covered. Among those newly covered were nearly 3.4 million State and local government workers, more than 1.7 million civilian employees of the Federal Government, and 1.5 million employed in private households. Coverage of these household workers, the great majority of whom are women, had been a long-time goal of the Women's Bureau.

It is estimated that more than 4 million workers were due immediate pay raises when the amendments went into effect on May 1, 1974. New hourly minimums were $2, $1.90, and $1.60, respectively, for nonfarm workers covered under the law prior to 1967 (by far the largest number), other nonfarm workers, and farm workers. Rates for each category rose January 1, 1975, and by January 1, 1978, the rate for all covered workers will be $2.30 an hour. The major groups of employees now excluded from coverage are in small retail and service establishments and on small farms.

The 1974 amendments gave the Department authority to sue not only for back wages but also for an equal amount of damages without the written request formerly required from aggrieved employees. Moreover, the Secretary of Labor was given authority to bring action even though the suit might involve issues of law that had not been finally settled by the courts. Public employees were explicitly given the right to bring action on behalf of themselves and other employees similarly situated.

The Federal law protects employees who file a complaint from being discriminated against by the employer. Representatives of the Wage and Hour Division also have authority to inspect records and investigate conditions in places of employment to detect violations or otherwise to obtain information for law enforcement.

OCCUPATIONAL SAFETY AND HEALTH

Responsibilities of the Secretary of Labor for promulgating and enforcing standards to protect workers are carried out by the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA). The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 gave the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), within the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, responsibility for research and related functions and for making recommendations concerning standards. The law stresses the importance of developing criteria for dealing with toxic materials and undertaking activities needed to meet new problems and new technology.

Under the law each employer must furnish employment free from recognized hazards and comply with standards promulgated under the act. It is the duty of each employee to comply with the standards and all applicable rules, regulations, and orders issued pursuant to the law.

Procedures are established for inspections and recordkeeping as well as for issuing citations to and imposing penalties on employers who violate the act. An employee who believes that an imminent danger exists or that a safety or health standard is being violated may request an inspection.

States can promulgate standards for any occupational safety or health issue not covered by a Federal standard. OSHA is authorized to pay half of the operating costs of State job safety and health programs which it has approved as being "at least as effective as" the Federal program. Such approval can be withdrawn if OSHA determines that a State plan is not being properly administered. As of November 1974, 26 States had begun to operate approved safety and health plans.

Because of limited resources, a priority system for inspection has been established, with the highest priority being assigned to catastrophes and other fatal accidents, followed by valid employee complaints. Next are five industries with extremely high disabling injury rates and five toxic substances considered the most common and hazardous by the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health. Recently

published information that workers exposed to vinyl chloride face a high incidence of cancer caused OSHA to give priority attention to hazards from this substance and to issue new standards on use of protective equipment and elimination of the fumes from workplaces. (As of the end of December 1974, enforcement of the proposed standards was being delayed by court order.)

AGE DISCRIMINATION IN EMPLOYMENT

Under the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, which became effective June 12, 1968, it is an unlawful employment practice, if based on age:

—For an *employer* to fail or refuse to hire, or to discharge, or otherwise discriminate against any individual with respect to compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment, or to limit, segregate, or classify employees in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive an individual of job opportunities, or otherwise adversely affect the person's status as an employee.

—For *an employment agency* to fail or refuse to refer for employment, or in any other way discriminate, or to classify or refer anyone for employment on the basis of age.

—For a *labor organization* to exclude or expel from membership, or otherwise discriminate against; or to limit, segregate, or classify its membership; or to classify or fail or refuse to refer for employment, any individual in any way which would deprive or tend to deprive the individual of job opportunity, limit job opportunities, or adversely affect status as an employee or a job applicant, because of age; or to cause or attempt to cause an employer to discriminate.

It is not unlawful to observe the terms of a bona fide seniority system or employee benefit plan, such as a retirement, pension, or insurance plan, which is not a subterfuge to evade the purpose of the act. (However, such plans cannot be used as an excuse to refuse to hire an individual.) Nor is it unlawful to discharge or otherwise discipline an individual for good cause. It may be possible for an employer to determine that age is a qualification reasonably necessary to the performance of the duties of certain jobs. These provisions are administered by the Department of Labor, generally in accordance with the powers and procedures provided in the Fair Labor Standards Act. The Department is required to delay suit for specified periods following initiation of proceedings under a State age discrimination law, but Department actions supersede any State action.

EQUAL RIGHTS AMENDMENT

The principle of an Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) was supported by several Presidents and endorsed by major political party platforms. Nevertheless, it took almost 50 years from the first introduction of an ERA in 1923 to overwhelming approval by the 92d Congress in 1972.

As of June 1, 1975, 34 States have ratified the amendment. These States are: Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Hawaii (first to ratify, and within 1 hour after Senate passage), Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. States that have not ratified ERA are: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Nevada, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Utah, Virginia.

States with Equal Rights Amendments to their State constitution are: Alaska, Colorado, Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, Maryland, Montana, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, Texas, Virginia, and Washington.

Over the years concern for the human rights of women in the United States has been nurtured by women's groups, individual citizens, and government—notably the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women and the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor. Major efforts have focused upon weaving the principle of equality between men and women into the legal fabric of the Nation. These efforts have involved legislation not only in the area of employment but also constitutional changes of broader application.

The feminist movements of the late 19th and early 20th centuries were concerned principally with gaining the right to vote and improving working conditions and hours for women. Their efforts resulted in the adoption in 1920 of the 19th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution granting women the right to vote, and the enactment of a number of State laws providing special benefits or protection for women.

With the 1960's came a new surge of interest in the status of women in the United States. Women from all walks of life became more aware of their potential as human beings and began to object to restrictions on their opportunities. They began to insist upon full recognition of their human rights and full participation in human affairs on the basis of dignity and equality with men.

As the movement gained momentum, men also began to support the need for fuller recognition of the human rights of women. Thus, the time was ripe for serious consideration of the Equal Rights Amendment.

Steps taken in anticipation of ratification of ERA include the following:

The U.S. Civil Rights Commission has contracted for research into sex discrimination in Federal laws and regulations. The Justice Department is also exploring areas of sex discrimination in Federal laws and regulations.

The Secretary of Labor has issued orders and established committees, both in Washington, D.C., and in regions, to coordinate within the Department of Labor policies and programs as they affect women. Order No. 4–72, issued in January 1972, requires that activities which relate to the varied participation of women in the economic and social development of the Nation be coordinated with the activities of the Women's Bureau; that heads of constituent parts of the Department of Labor involve the Bureau in policymaking matters in which women's interests are involved; that they clear with the Women's Bureau regulations, surveys, proposed legislation, congressional testimony, and Department of Labor publications which may have an impact on Women's Bureau activities; and that they utilize the Bureau's expertise on matters that relate to women's interests. The Director of the Women's Bureau was designated as Special Counselor to the Secretary of Labor for Women's Programs. In August 1973 the Intradepartmental Coordinating Committee, composed of policymaking-level members of major Department of Labor agencies, was established with the objective of utilizing fully the resources of the Department on behalf of women through effective coordination of the Department's activities. Order No. 21–73, issued by the Secretary of Labor on September 12, 1973, requires comparable coordination at the regional level.

These national and regional committees have taken the first steps in making the full resources and programs of the Labor Department as available and relevant to women as to men. Department of Labor publications are being reviewed to insure that they do not represent women in a discriminatory way, and formal guidelines are being proposed to insure avoidance of discriminatory language and reflection of the concerns of women.

A task force is establishing guidelines to assist agency staff in recognizing bias in legislation and regulations and in suggesting possible remedies for past inequities based on sex.

In response to a recommendation from the Advisory Committee on Women to the Secretary of Labor and in anticipation of the ratification of the ERA, all agencies within the Department are examining laws, policies, rules, and regulations they administer in the light of their impact on women.

The Labor Department's goal of eliminating all forms of sex discrimination in legislation, regulations, orders, and policies is clearly in harmony with ERA.

UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

The following supplements the summary of unemployment insurance benefits provided earlier.

The permanent Federal tax rate for unemployment insurance (UI) is now 3.2 percent of the first $4,200 of a worker's annual wages; of this amount, 0.5 percent is the net Federal share and 2.7 percent is offset against State taxes. The Federal unemployment tax revenue is used to pay the administrative expenses of the employment security program and half the costs of extended benefits in periods of high unemployment, and to maintain an account for loans to States whose benefit reserves are depleted.

In addition to the Federal-State system, Federal laws provide that separated Federal civilians and ex-service personnel receive unemployment benefits in the same amounts and under the same conditions as if their Federal civilian or military service had been subject to the State law.

Benefits are payable for a limited period. Except in Puerto Rico, the maximum duration of regular benefits is 26 weeks or more in a year, but in most States duration may be less than the maximum, depending on the amount of the individual's base-period employment or wages.

Major excluded groups are State and local government employees, domestic workers in private homes, farm workers, and employees of nonprofit organizations. Women are an important part of the work force in each group except agriculture. A bill now being considered by the Congress would extend coverage to some farm workers. Four States now cover domestic workers in private homes.

The 1963 President's Commission on the Status of Women attributed unemployment insurance limitations on women's protection to the assumption that women are secondary workers, loosely attached to the job market.[1] Court cases, State legislation, or re-interpretation of State laws (encouraged by the Department of Labor) have reduced statutory discrimination against women but it has not disappeared.

Despite State statutory restrictions and administrative approaches which limit the protection of women workers, about 38 percent of the UI beneficiaries in fiscal year 1972 (July 1971-June 1972) were women.

Weekly Benefit Amount. The weekly benefit amount is, generally, 50 percent of weekly wages within statutory minimum and maximum amounts. In most States, however, the maximum is set so low in relation to wages that substantial numbers of claimants have their benefits curtailed by the maximum. Because women's wages generally are lower than men's, however, women workers are less affected by low maximums than are men. Particularly in the 18 States where the maximum represents less than half the average wage in the State, women claimants are also adversely affected by the inadequate maximums. As activities in other areas reduce the job opportunity and wage discriminations against women, the maximum will be of increasing concern to them.

Legislation pending before Congress (H.R. 8600) would require a maximum equal to at least 66⅔ percent of the average weekly wage in covered employment in the State.

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[1] In 1963 the President's Commission on the Status of Women set up a series of seven committees to explore various subjects of particular interest to women. The Committee on Social Insurance and Taxes considered UI. In 1968 the Citizens' Advisory Council on the Status of Women created a Task Force on Social Insurance and Taxes. Some of the recommendations of these two groups against discrimination, referred to as the 1963 Committee and the 1968 Task Force, are discussed later.

Statutory Barriers Against Women Claimants. Since 1971 the number of States with statutory provisions designed to deny compensation to those who are unable or unwilling to work but which in fact explicitly or implicitly discriminate against women has decreased from 42 to 32. Explicit discriminations relate to pregnancy and to the payment of additional allowances for dependents. Implicit provisions that preponderantly discriminate against women deny benefits to workers who leave a job because of domestic or family obligations..

The most common statutory barriers, now found in 31 States, deal with pregnancy. The special provisions arise out of the difficulties of determining the benefit eligibility of pregnant women. A pregnant woman who is physically unable to work, or does not want to work, is not eligible for benefits under the normal eligibility provisions. How long before and after confinement a woman is unable to work depends on her health and the nature and physical demands of her job. Pregnant women, like other workers, lose their jobs or are temporarily unemployed for economic reasons.

Part of the difficulty arises from the assumption that a pregnant woman is not truly available for work because employers would be reluctant to hire her. Availability, however, should be measured by the individual's readiness and willingness to accept work. Difficult policy problems are immediately presented when availability is made to depend on employer willingness to hire individuals in the claimant's category—whether the category is pregnant women, older workers, or members of minority groups. Following issuance of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's *Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex*, effective April 5, 1972, the number of States with special provisions dealing with the benefit rights of pregnant women has been reduced and some have modified their disqualifications. The guidelines provide that "A written or unwritten employment policy or practice which excludes from employment applicants or employees because of pregnancy is in prima facie violation of title VII." (Section 1604.10 (e), *Federal Register*, Vol. 37, No. 66, Wednesday, April 5, 1972, p. 6837.)

The provisions remaining vary considerably. Some States distinguish between a woman who left work voluntarily during pregnancy and one who was laid off, while others recognize no such distinction. Some start the disqualification whenever unemployment is due to pregnancy; others establish a fixed period, ranging from 4 weeks to 4 months before the anticipated date of childbirth. After termination of pregnancy, some States provide a fixed period; some require a specified amount of reemployment; and others only require evidence of ability to work and search for work. Most provisions deny benefits without regard to the woman's ability to work, her availability for work, or her efforts to find work. Several courts have now declared such provisions unconstitutional.

Even without the specific disqualification, very few pregnant women get benefits. A study by a State that does not have a special provision revealed that of every eight women who, for any reason, stopped working during pregnancy, only one filed a claim for benefits. Of the pregnant claimants, 8 out of 10 had been laid off. About 60 percent of those who drew benefits during pregnancy had substantial employment in each of the preceding 3 years, and about 40 percent were already working mothers. Less than 1 percent of all benefits paid in the State were paid to pregnant claimants.

Deletion of special pregnancy disqualifications does not necessarily remove all the unemployment benefit problems of pregnant women. Some employers provide that a pregnant woman may take a leave of absence. Four State courts have held that employees placed on maternity leave in accordance with collective bargaining provisions have voluntarily left without good cause attributable to their employment and, hence, are ineligible for benefits until they return to work and are subsequently separated for qualifying reason. Women who unsuccessfully apply to their employers for reemployment before termination of the leave of absence are held ineligible for the duration of the leave of absence. Both the 1963 Committee and the 1968 Task Force recommended that:

"Disqualifications from unemployment compensation in respect to pregnancy and maternity should be based on reasonable tests of the ability and capacity of the individual to work and should not be determined by arbitrary time periods before and after birth which do not fit the variation in physical ability of women workers, in types of job and in working conditions."

Domestic and Marital Obligations. Unemployment insurance laws have always recognized that there are circumstances under which workers are justified in leaving their jobs, so that even a system designed to compensate involuntary unemployment should pay benefits if a worker cannot find another job. The laws also recognized that personal circumstances might take a normally employed person out of the active labor force temporarily, so that the determination of a claimant's availability to work should be made week by week.

At one time the provisions that a worker was not disqualified if he or she left voluntarily for good cause generally defined good cause as including personal circumstances. At present, however, 27 States limit good cause to cause related to the job. Some States have added specific disqualifications for workers who leave their jobs to marry, to move with their spouse, or to perform marital, filial, or domestic obligations. These disqualifications are unnecessary because the normal voluntary quit and availability requirements provide an adequate basis for denying benefits. They are undesirable because they preclude consideration of whether the individual is prevented by domestic obligations from being available for work.

Thirteen States have more severe disqualification rules for workers who leave their jobs for one or more of those family-related reasons than those who quit voluntarily. Two additional States specify that an individual who left for one of those reasons is deemed unavailable for work until reemployed. None now specify that these disqualifications can be applied only to women claimants. Two years ago 23 States had some such provision, and 7 specified that they applied only to women. The people disqualified under these provisions are almost exclusively women.

A waiver or modification of the disqualification for claimants who are the sole or major support of the family is in six State laws. This assists proportionately more men than women.

Both the 1963 Committee and the 1968 Task Force recommended that:

> "Disqualifications from unemployment compensation for voluntarily leaving work should be so limited that an individual who leaves on account of family obligations, or of moving to accompany or be with spouse is not denied benefits for weeks when he or she is in fact ready, willing and able to work."

Dependents' Allowances. Most State benefit formulas determine a worker's benefits by his or her past wages, but in 11 States additional amounts may be paid because of dependents. In all 11 States the allowances operate for the greater benefit of men than of women. In general, they are paid only for specified relatives who are wholly or mainly supported by the claimant. Children are defined as dependents in all 11 laws; 7 include nonworking spouses and 2 include other relatives who are unable to work.

Since a woman's wages are generally lower than her husband's, the requirement that the claimant provide more than half the support eliminates many working wives, even those whose wages are essential to the family's support.

The impact of dependents' allowance provisions on women claimants is, moreover, not limited to the reflection of actual wage differences. Some State laws require special proof or circumstances before a wife can claim allowances for her children. Whether or not the law contains such language, there is in the administration of the program a tendency to accept at face value a father's statement that he has dependent children, but to require the mother to prove it. There have been cases in which widows have been denied dependents' allowances because the children were receiving survivors' benefits under social security.

Despite the fact that at least 20 percent of working wives provide 40 percent of their families' incomes and that there are several million women heads of families in the labor force, over half of the men in States that provide dependents' allowances receive such allowances compared with only 8 percent of the women claimants.

The 1968 Task Force on Social Insurance and Taxes considered dependents' allowances, and concluded that:

> "In a wage loss insurance system, provision of additional allowances because of dependents should not be a substitute for an adequate wage-related benefit. If, however, dependents' allowances are provided, they should not be limited to high-wage workers; and the formulas should not discriminate against workers."

Qualifying Requirement and New Entrants. As one way to limit benefits to those with a substantial and continuing attachment to the labor force, all UI laws contain an eligibility requirement in terms of recent past covered employment. Generally from 14 to 20 weeks of employment (or its equivalent in wages) is required in a base period, which ends from 3 to 6 months before the claim for benefits. Therefore, a new entrant or reentrant into the labor force has no protection against unemployment for a period of 9 months to a year after the first day of work.

The qualifying requirement means that the system does not protect those who are entering or reentering the labor force. Because of their lack of experience or seniority, these new entrants and reentrants may have particularly difficult employment problems.

Employers pay Federal and State UI taxes on the wages of part-time workers. About 3 out of 4 part-time workers work 15 or more hours a week, enough to qualify for benefits. Generally, however those who work part time for personal rather than economic reasons would not be entitled to benefits if they lost their jobs, because the requirement of availability is interpreted to mean availability for full-time work.

This historic UI attitude toward the availability of part-time workers is rooted in a period when part-time work generally was due to economic circumstances. Voluntary part-time work was so far outside the mainstream of work that those performing it could not reasonably be considered to be substantially attached to the labor force.

These assumptions and attitudes do not reflect the fact that more and more such industries build their employment plans around the permanent use of part-time workers.

SOCIAL SECURITY BENEFITS

The following information supplements the discussion of social security benefits provided earlier.

Equal contributions to the social security system are required of the employer and the employee. At the outset, the social security tax rate was 1 percent of the first $3,000 in wages for a maximum of $30. At present, employers and employees each pay 5.85 percent (including .90 percent for hospital insurance) of up to $14,100 a year; the maximum annual tax is $824.85. When the system was inaugurated, the largest monthly benefit for a retired worker was $85. The maximum monthly benefit payable on the basis of one worker's participation in 1974 was $557.50; the minimum for an individual was $93.80.

The number of quarters of work credit needed for social security retirement or survivors' benefits depends on the worker's age, but in no case does it exceed 40.

The law defines "retirement age" at 65 years. Retirement as early as age 62 can be elected with a permanent reduction in benefits. Persons who choose to work past retirement age get a "bonus" of 1 percent in their retirement benefits for each year of work up to age 72, but until that age their benefits

are reduced by $1 for each $2 earned over a certain amount. There is a special minimum retirement benefit for persons who have had low earnings during long years of social security coverage.

Disability benefits in the same amount as retirement benefits are payable beginning the sixth full month of a physical or mental impairment that can be expected to result in death or to last at least 12 months. There are minimum service requirements for eligibility for disability benefits: 1½ years of work in the preceding 3 years for those disabled before age 24; half the time between age 21 and disability for those between 24 and 31. Older workers must have as much credit as they would need if they reached retirement age the year they become disabled.

The wife of a beneficiary is entitled at age 65 to a benefit equal to half of her spouse's. Beginning at age 62, such a wife may elect to start drawing benefits at a permanently reduced rate. There is no minimum age for benefits for the wife who has children entitled to benefits.

The social security contributions of a married woman worker do not provide income for her husband when she retires or becomes disabled, unless she has supplied at least half his support.

Survivors' benefits are payable to (a) unmarried children under 18 (22 if full-time students, or older if severely disabled before age 22); (b) a widow or dependent widower 60 or older; (c) widow under 60, or former wife, if she is caring for a deceased worker's child under age 18; (d) widow or dependent widower 50 or older who becomes disabled within 7 years of the worker's death, or within 7 years after a widow stops getting checks for caring for the worker's children; and (e) dependent parent age 62 or older. For the widow or dependent widower who does not draw benefits until age 65, the benefit is 100 percent of the worker's entitlement.

Divorced wives are eligible for benefits if their marriage to an insured worker lasted 20 years or more.

An individual may not simultaneously receive benefits as a retired worker and as a spouse or widow/dependent widower, but is entitled to the more advantageous benefit.

EXPLANATION OF STATISTICAL SURVEYS—Part 3

The labor force and employment statistics in this report are primarily compiled from three major sources: (1) household interviews; (2) reports from employers; and (3) the Decennial Census. Also included in this report are transactions of the public Employment Service obtained from the Employment Security Automated Reporting System.

Data based on household interviews are obtained from a sample survey of the population 16 years of age and over. The survey is conducted each month by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics and provides comprehensive data on the labor force, the employed and the unemployed, including such characteristics as age, sex, color, marital status, occupations, hours of work, and duration of unemployment. The survey also provides data on the characteristics and past work experience of those not in the labor force. The information is collected by trained interviewers from a sample of about 47,000 households, representing 461 areas in 923 counties and independent cities, with coverage in 50 States and the District of Columbia. The data collected are based on the activity or status reported for the calendar week including the 12th of the month.

Data based on establishment (employers) records are compiled each month from mail questionnaires by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in cooperation with State agencies. The establishment surveys are designed to provide detailed industry information on nonagricultural wage and salary employment, average weekly hours, average hourly and weekly earnings, and labor turnover for the Nation, States, and metropolitan areas. The employment, hours, and earnings series are based on payroll reports from a sample of establishments employing over 30 million nonagricultural wage and salary workers. The data relate to all workers, full- or part-time, who received pay during the payroll period which includes the 12th of the month. Based on a somewhat smaller sample, labor turnover data relate to actions occurring during the entire month.

Relation Between the Household and Establishment Series

The household and establishment data supplement one another, each providing significant types of information that the other cannot suitably supply. Population characteristics, for example, are readily obtained only from the household survey whereas detailed industrial classifications can be reliably derived only from establishment reports.

Data from these two sources differ from each other because of differences in definition and coverage, sources of information, methods of collection, and estimating procedures. Sampling variability and response errors are additional reasons for discrepancies. The major factors which have a differential effect on levels and trends of the two series are as follows:

Coverage. The *household survey* definition of employment comprises wage and salary workers (including domestics and other private household workers), self-employed persons, and unpaid workers who worked 15 hours or more during the survey week in family operated enterprises. Employment in both agricultural and nonagricultural industries is included. The *payroll survey* covers only wage and salary employees on the payrolls of nonagricultural establishments.

Multiple jobholding. The household approach provides information on the work status of the population without duplication since each person is classified as employed, unemployed, or not in the labor force. Employed persons holding more than one job are counted only once and are classified according to the job at which they worked the greatest number of hours during the survey week. In the figures based on establishment records, persons who worked in more than one establishment during the reporting period are counted each time their names appear on the payroll.

Unpaid absences from jobs. The household survey includes among the employed all persons who had jobs but were not at work during the survey week—that is, were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labor management dispute, or because they were taking time off for various other reasons, even if they were not paid by their employers for the time off. In the figures based on payroll reports, persons on leave paid for by the company are included, but not those on leave without pay for the entire payroll period.

Hours of work. The household survey measures hours actually worked whereas the payroll survey measures hours paid for by employers. In the household survey data, all persons with a job but not at work are excluded from the hours distributions and the computations of average hours. In the payroll surveys, employees on paid vacation, paid holiday, or paid sick leave are included and assigned the number of hours for which they were paid during the reporting period.

The Decennial Census consists of basic demographic data collected and published every 10 years by the U.S. Census Bureau. The census information on population is derived from a 100 percent headcount, while other demographic characteristics such as race, marital status, vocational training, disability and income are estimated using a 5- to 20-percent sample of the population.

Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS)

The Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS) provides for a report of all local public employment service system transactions, such as placements, counseling interviews, employer visits, etc. All information input is captured at the local office level manually. Summary data in the form of a variety of tables is sent on magnetic tape to the national office for distribution to the various program components for management information purposes.

The primary purpose of ESARS is to provide a reporting system based on individuals served, as well as counts of transactions, so as to give management greater insight into quality and quantity in program operations on a monthly basis. Accordingly, it is the basic data source for manpower development programs.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS—Part 4

Household Survey

Employed persons comprise (a) all those who during the survey week did any work at all as paid employees, in their own business, profession, or farm, or who worked 15 hours or more as unpaid workers in an enterprise operated by a member of the family, and (b) all those who were not working but who had jobs or businesses from which they were temporarily absent because of illness, bad weather, vacation, labor-management dispute, or personal reasons, whether or not they were paid by their employers for the time off, and whether or not they were seeking other jobs.

Each employed person is counted only once. Those who held more than one job are counted in the job at which they worked the greatest number of hours during the survey week.

Included in the total are employed citizens of foreign countries, temporarily in the United States, who are not living on the premises of an Embassy.

Excluded are persons whose only activity consisted of work around the house (such as own home housework, and painting or repairing own home) or volunteer work for religious, charitable, and similar organizations.

Unemployed persons comprise all persons who did not work during the survey week, who made specific efforts to find a job within the past 4 weeks, and who were available for work during the survey week (except for temporary illness). Also included as unemployed are those who did not work at all, were available for work, and (a) were waiting to be called back to a job from which they had been laid off; or (b) were waiting to report to a new wage or salary job within 30 days.

Unemployed persons by reasons for unemployment are divided into four major groups. (1) Job losers are persons whose employment ended involuntarily and who immediately began looking for work, and persons on layoff. (2) Job leavers are persons who quit or otherwise terminated their employment voluntarily and immediately began looking for work. (3) Reentrants are persons who previously worked at a full-time job lasting 2 weeks or longer but who were out of the labor force prior to beginning to look for work. (4) New entrants are persons who never worked at a full-time job lasting 2 weeks or longer.

The civilian labor force comprises the total of all civilians classified as employed or unemployed in accordance with the criteria described above. The "total labor force" also includes members of the Armed Forces stationed either in the United States or abroad.

The unemployment rate represents the number unemployed as a percentage of the civilian labor force. This measure can also be computed for groups within the labor force classified by such characteristics as sex, age, martial status, and color.

Participation rates represent the proportion of the noninstitutional population that is in the labor force. The civilian labor force participation rate is the ratio of the civilian labor force and the civilian noninstitutional population. Participation rates are usually published for sex-age groups, often cross classified by other demographic characteristics such as color and educational attainment.

Not in labor force includes all civilians 16 years and over who are not classified as employed or unemployed. These persons are further classified as "engaged in own home housework," "in school," "unable to work because of long-term physical or mental illness," and "other." The "other" group includes for the most part retired persons, those reported as too old to work, the voluntarily idle, and seasonal workers for whom the survey week fell in an "off" season and who were not reported as unemployed. Persons doing

only incidental unpaid family work (less than 15 hours) are also classified as not in the labor force.

For persons not in the labor force, data on previous work experience, intentions to seek work again, desire for a job at the time of interview, and reasons for not looking for work are compiled on a quarterly basis.

Occupation, industry, and class of worker for the employed apply to the job held in the survey week. Persons with two or more jobs are classified in the job at which they worked the greatest number of hours during the survey week. The unemployed are classified according to their latest full-time civilian job lasting 2 weeks or more. The occupation and industry groups used in data derived from the CPS household interviews are defined as in the 1970 Census of Population. Information on the detailed categories included in these groups is available upon request.

The *class-of-worker* breakdown specifies "wage and salary workers," subdivided into private and government workers, "self-employed workers," and "unpaid family workers." Wage and salary workers receive wages, salary, commission, tips, or pay in kind from a private employer or from a government unit. Self-employed persons are those who work for profit or fees in their own business, profession, or trade, or operate a farm. Unpaid family workers are persons working without pay for 15 hours a week or more on a farm or in a business operated by a member of the household to whom they are related by blood or marriage.

Hours of work statistics relate to the actual number of hours worked during the survey week. For example, a person who normally works 40 hours a week but who was off on the New Year's Day holiday would be reported as working 32 hours even though he or she was paid for the holiday. For persons working in more than one job, the figures relate to the number of hours worked in all jobs during the week. However, all the hours are credited to the major job.

Part-year workers include all persons who were employed less than 50 weeks during the survey year.

Year-round full-time workers are persons who work 35 or more hours per week for 50 to 52 weeks during the year.

Total income includes income from the following sources:

1. Earnings: Wages or salaries and/or net income from farm and nonfarm self-employment.
2. Income other than earnings:
   a. Private pensions, alimony, annuities.
   b. Social security payments, Government railroad retirement.
   c. Dividends, interests, rents, income from estates or trusts, and net royalties.
   d. Public assistance and welfare payments.
   e. Unemployment and workers' compensation, Government employee pensions, and veterans' payments.

Educational attainment is defined as years of school completed in "regular" schools, which include graded public, private, and parochial elementary and high schools, colleges, universities, and professional schools, whether day or night schools. Thus "regular" schooling is that which could be expected to advance a person to an elementary certificate, high school diploma, or a college, university, or professional degree. Schooling in other than regular schools is counted only if the credits obtained were regarded as transferable to a school in the regular school system.

White and Negro and other races are terms used to describe the color or race of workers. The Negro and other races category, which in the past had been identified as "nonwhite," includes all persons who are observed in the enumeration process to be other than white. At the time of the 1970 Census of Population, 89 percent of the Negro and other races population group were Negro; the remainder were American Indians, Eskimos, Orientals, and other nonwhite. The term "Negro" is used in tables when the relevant data are provided for Negroes exclusively.

Spanish origin refers to persons who identified themselves in the enumeration process as Mexican, Puerto Rican living on the mainland, Cuban, Central or South American, or other Spanish origin or descent. According to the 1970 Census, about 93 percent of

all women of Spanish origin were white, 5 percent were black, the remaining 2 percent were Indians, unreported, and other.

Classifications of marital status. A woman is classified as "*married, husband present*" if her husband is reported as a member of the household or group quarters. *Married, husband absent* (*separated*) includes those women who were separated from their husbands because of marital discord and those whose usual place of residence is different from that of their husbands for other reasons such as service in the Armed Forces, and employment or schooling at a considerable distance from the home.

Other marital status classifications are: single (never married), widowed, and divorced.

Family. A group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage, or adoption and residing together.

Head of family. One person in each family is designated as the head. The head of the family is usually the person regarded as the head by the members of the family. Married women are not classified as heads if their husbands are living with them at the time of the survey. Married couples related to the head of a family and living in the same household are included in the head's family and are not classified as separate families.

Household head. One person in each household is designated as the head. The head is usually the person regarded as the head by the members of the group. If a husband and wife family occupy the unit, the husband is designated as the head. The number of heads, therefore, is equal to the number of households.

Children, as used in this report, include only "own" children of the family head—sons and daughters, step-children, and adopted children. Other related children (such as nieces, nephews, cousins, grandchildren) and unrelated children are excluded.

Appendix B

Japan

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STATISTICAL TABLES—Part 1

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Table 1.—Population Aged 15 and Over, Labor Force and Nonlabor Force, by Sex

[10,000 persons]

Year	Population aged 15 and over	Labor force	Nonlabor force
TOTAL			
1955	5, 925	4, 194	1, 723
1960	6, 520	4, 511	1, 998
1965	7, 287	4, 787	2, 497
1970	7, 885	5, 153	2, 723
1971	7, 970	5, 178	2, 779
1972	8, 051	5, 182	2, 851
1973	8, 208	5, 299	2, 887
1974	8, 300	5, 274	3, 000
WOMEN			
1955	3, 058	1, 740	1, 325
1960	3, 370	1, 838	1, 526
1965	3, 758	1, 903	1, 853
1970	4, 060	2, 024	2, 032
1971	4, 106	2, 004	2, 097
1972	4, 148	1, 981	2, 158
1973	4, 239	2, 045	2, 183
1974	4, 285	1, 996	2, 276
MEN			
1955	2, 857	2, 455	398
1960	3, 151	2, 673	472
1965	3, 529	2, 884	644
1970	3, 825	3, 129	691
1971	3, 864	3, 175	683
1972	3, 903	3, 201	693
1973	3, 969	3, 254	704
1974	4, 015	3, 278	723

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 2.—Labor Force and Labor Force Participation Rate, by Sex and Age Group

Year	Total	15 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 54	55 to 64	65 and over
Total:									
Labor force (10,000 persons):									
1955	4,194	479		1,993			1,469		216
1960	4,511	453	601	576	584	475	1,102	466	225
1965	4,787	392	725	598	591	589	1,187	478	229
1970	5,153	301	807	644	604	634	1,408	525	231
1971	5,178	274	853	604	601	635	1,446	540	227
1972	5,182	233	813	618	620	643	1,492	535	229
1973	5,299	218	762	667	641	652	1,566	550	242
1974	5,274	193	697	692	657	637	1,608	547	242
Labor force participation (percentage):									
1955	70.8	56.3		77.0			74.9		42.7
1960	69.2	50.8	79.0	74.3	76.4	76.0	74.4	66.4	39.8
1965	65.7	36.1	78.0	72.6	74.1	78.2	76.8	65.3	37.1
1970	65.4	32.5	75.6	71.2	72.9	77.6	78.4	64.2	31.8
1971	65.0	31.2	75.3	70.2	71.9	76.8	78.1	64.5	30.4
1972	64.4	27.9	74.3	69.8	71.7	76.8	78.0	63.2	29.4
1973	64.6	26.5	73.3	70.5	72.3	77.2	78.5	63.8	29.9
1974	63.5	23.8	71.7	69.7	71.3	76.3	78.1	63.0	28.8
Women:									
Labor force (10,000 persons):									
1955	1,740	222		844			567		83
1960	1,838	219	277	217	216	200	457	162	80
1965	1,903	191	325	204	205	226	506	172	75
1970	2,024	153	374	208	201	234	587	193	73
1971	2,004	137	388	188	195	231	594	202	70
1972	1,981	117	367	191	199	231	609	200	68
1973	2,045	113	350	212	209	238	637	209	77
1974	1,996	95	319	217	209	229	644	208	75
Labor force participation (percentage):									
1955	56.7	53.0		61.8			57.3		29.1
1960	54.5	49.0	70.8	54.5	56.5	59.0	59.0	46.7	25.6
1965	50.6	35.8	70.2	49.0	51.1	59.6	60.2	45.3	21.6
1970	49.9	33.6	70.5	45.6	48.2	57.5	61.8	44.4	18.0
1971	48.8	31.7	69.1	43.3	46.2	55.8	60.9	44.9	16.6
1972	47.8	28.5	67.4	43.0	45.7	55.4	60.9	43.7	15.6
1973	48.3	27.9	67.1	44.5	46.8	56.3	61.3	44.5	16.9
1974	46.6	24.0	65.6	43.3	44.9	54.8	60.4	43.6	15.8
Men:									
Labor force (10,000 persons):									
1955	2,455	258		1,149			902		133
1960	2,673	234	325	360	368	275	678	304	144
1965	2,884	201	400	395	386	363	681	306	153
1970	3,129	148	434	435	403	400	820	331	158
1971	3,175	137	465	416	406	405	852	338	157
1972	3,201	116	446	427	421	412	884	335	160
1973	3,254	105	413	455	432	414	929	341	165
1974	3,278	97	378	475	449	408	964	340	167
Labor force participation (percentage):									
1955	85.9	59.7		94.1			92.8		60.2
1960	84.8	52.7	87.8	95.5	96.6	96.2	95.9	85.6	56.9
1965	81.7	36.3	85.8	96.8	97.0	97.1	96.3	86.7	56.3
1970	81.8	31.4	80.5	97.2	98.0	97.7	97.0	86.7	49.4
1971	82.2	30.6	81.3	97.6	98.1	97.8	97.1	87.1	48.1
1972	82.0	27.3	81.2	97.0	98.0	98.0	97.1	86.6	47.0
1973	82.0	25.2	79.5	96.9	98.1	98.1	97.2	86.8	46.7
1974	81.6	23.6	77.7	96.5	98.1	98.0	97.1	86.5	45.6

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 3.—Women Labor Force and Labor Force Participation Rate, by Marital Status

	Total	Single	Married	Widowed and divorced
	Labor force (10,000 persons)			
1962	1, 861	583	1, 033	245
1965	1, 903	568	1, 094	240
1970	2, 024	603	1, 187	234
1971	2, 004	585	1, 188	231
1972	1, 981	550	1, 206	225
1973	2, 045	546	1, 261	238
1974	1, 996	517	1, 250	229
	Labor force participation rate (percentage)			
1962	53. 4	63. 6	51. 1	44. 5
1965	50. 6	56. 4	49. 9	42. 9
1970	49. 9	59. 3	48. 3	39. 9
1971	48. 8	59. 3	47. 0	38. 9
1972	47. 8	57. 6	46. 6	37. 4
1973	48. 3	57. 5	47. 2	38. 5
1974	46. 6	55. 5	45. 8	36. 8

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 4.—Nonlabor Force, by Sex

Year	Total	Keeping house	Attending school	Others
Total:				
Nonlabor force (10,000 persons):				
1955	1,723	.....		
1960	1,998	1,021	454	523
1965	2,497	1,202	733	561
1970	2,723	1,379	735	609
1971	2,779	1,442	711	627
1972	2,851	1,481	715	654
1973	2,887	1,500	730	657
1974	3,000	1,563	748	689
Percentage:				
1955	100.0	.....		
1960	100.0	51.1	22.7	26.2
1965	100.0	48.1	29.4	22.5
1970	100.0	50.6	27.0	22.4
1971	100.0	51.9	25.6	22.6
1972	100.0	51.9	25.1	22.9
1973	100.0	52.0	25.3	22.8
1974	100.0	52.1	24.9	23.0
Women:				
Nonlabor force (10,000 persons):				
1955	1,325	.....		
1960	1,526	1,005	216	306
1965	1,853	1,188	341	323
1970	2,032	1,373	323	335
1971	2,097	1,436	315	345
1972	2,158	1,474	319	365
1973	2,183	1,493	324	366
1974	2,276	1,556	335	385
Percentage:				
1955	100.0	.....		
1960	100.0	65.9	14.2	20.0
1965	100.0	64.1	18.4	17.4
1970	100.0	67.6	15.9	16.5
1971	100.0	68.5	15.0	16.5
1972	100.0	68.3	14.8	16.9
1973	100.0	68.4	14.8	16.8
1974	100.0	68.4	14.7	16.9
Men:				
Nonlabor force (10,000 persons):				
1955	398	.....		
1960	472	16	238	217
1965	644	15	391	238
1970	691	6	412	273
1971	683	5	395	282
1972	693	7	397	289
1973	704	7	406	291
1974	723	7	413	304
Percentage:				
1955	100.0	.....		
1960	100.0	3.4	50.4	46.0
1965	100.0	2.3	60.7	37.0
1970	100.0	.9	59.6	39.5
1971	100.0	.7	57.8	41.3
1972	100.0	1.0	57.3	41.7
1973	100.0	1.0	57.7	41.3
1974	100.0	1.0	57.1	42.0

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 5.—Number of Unemployed Persons and Unemployment Rate, by Sex

Year	Total		Women		Men	
	Unemployed (10,000 persons)	Unemployment rate (percentage)	Unemployed (10,000 persons)	Unemployment rate (percentage)	Unemployed (10,000 persons)	Unemployment rate (percentage)
1955	105	2.5	40	2.3	65	2.6
1960	75	1.7	31	1.7	44	1.6
1965	57	1.2	25	1.3	32	1.1
1970	59	1.2	21	1.1	38	1.2
1971	64	1.2	23	1.2	41	1.3
1972	73	1.4	25	1.3	48	1.5
1973	67	1.3	24	1.2	43	1.3
1974	72	1.4	26	1.3	46	1.4

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 6.—Number of Employed Persons and Percentage Distribution, by Sex and Employment Status

Year	All industries				Agriculture and forestry				Nonagricultural			
	Total	Self-employed	Unpaid family workers	Paid employees	Total	Self-employed	Unpaid family workers	Paid employees	Total	Self-employed	Unpaid family workers	Paid employees
Total:												
Employed persons (10,000 persons):												
1955	4,090	1,028	1,284	1,778	1,478	491	913	74	2,612	537	371	1,704
1960	4,436	1,006	1,061	2,370	1,273	456	723	94	3,164	550	338	2,276
1965	4,730	939	915	2,876	1,046	394	593	59	3,684	545	322	2,817
1970	5,094	977	805	3,306	842	363	451	29	4,251	614	354	3,277
1971	5,114	956	746	3,406	768	345	398	25	4,347	611	348	3,381
1972	5,109	946	706	3,452	705	324	355	26	4,404	622	351	3,425
1973	5,233	966	663	3,595	656	312	314	29	4,577	655	349	3,565
1974	5,201	952	630	3,610	628	309	289	30	4,573	643	341	3,580
Percentage distribution:												
1955	100.0	25.1	31.4	43.5	100.0	33.2	61.8	5.0	100.0	20.6	14.2	65.2
1960	100.0	22.7	23.9	53.4	100.0	35.8	56.8	7.4	100.0	17.4	10.7	71.9
1965	100.0	19.9	19.3	60.8	100.0	37.7	56.7	5.6	100.0	14.8	8.7	76.5
1970	100.0	19.2	15.8	64.9	100.0	43.1	53.6	3.4	100.0	14.4	8.3	77.1
1971	100.0	18.7	14.6	66.6	100.0	44.9	51.8	3.3	100.0	14.1	8.0	77.8
1972	100.0	18.5	13.8	67.6	100.0	46.0	50.4	3.7	100.0	14.1	8.0	77.8
1973	100.0	18.5	12.7	68.7	100.0	47.6	47.9	4.4	100.0	14.3	7.6	77.9
1974	100.0	18.3	12.1	69.4	100.0	49.2	46.0	4.8	100.0	14.1	7.5	78.3
Women:												
Employed persons (10,000 persons):												
1955	1,700	267	902	531	749	78	640	31	951	189	262	500
1960	1,807	285	784	738	661	85	539	37	1,146	200	245	701
1965	1,878	273	692	913	553	78	455	20	1,325	195	237	893
1970	2,003	285	619	1,096	442	77	355	10	1,561	208	264	1,086
1971	1,981	281	581	1,116	402	77	317	8	1,579	204	264	1,109
1972	1,956	283	551	1,120	367	76	284	7	1,589	208	267	1,113
1973	2,021	309	523	1,186	345	81	255	8	1,677	228	268	1,179
1974	1,970	296	500	1,171	328	84	236	8	1,642	212	264	1,163
Percentage distribution:												
1955	100.0	15.7	53.1	31.2	100.0	10.4	85.4	4.1	100.0	19.9	27.5	52.6
1960	100.0	15.8	43.4	40.8	100.0	12.9	81.5	5.6	100.0	17.5	21.4	61.1
1965	100.0	14.5	36.8	48.6	100.0	14.1	82.3	3.6	100.0	14.7	17.9	67.4
1970	100.0	14.2	30.9	54.7	100.0	17.4	80.3	2.3	100.0	13.3	16.9	69.6
1971	100.0	14.2	29.3	56.3	100.0	19.2	78.9	2.0	100.0	12.9	16.7	70.2
1972	100.0	14.5	28.2	57.3	100.0	20.7	77.4	1.9	100.0	13.1	16.8	76.0
1973	100.0	15.3	25.9	58.7	100.0	23.5	73.9	2.3	100.0	13.6	16.0	70.3
1974	100.0	15.0	25.4	59.4	100.0	25.6	72.0	2.4	100.0	12.9	16.1	70.8

See footnote at end of table.

Table 6.—Number of Employed Persons and Percentage Distribution, by Sex and Employment Status—Continued

Year	All industries				Agriculture and forestry				Nonagricultural			
	Total	Self-employed	Unpaid family workers	Paid employees	Total	Self-employed	Unpaid family workers	Paid employees	Total	Self-employed	Unpaid family workers	Paid employees
Men:												
Employed persons (10,000 persons):												
1955	2,390	761	382	1,247	729	413	273	43	1,661	348	109	1,204
1960	2,629	721	277	1,632	612	371	184	57	2,018	350	93	1,575
1965	2,852	666	223	1,963	493	316	138	39	2,359	350	85	1,924
1970	3,091	692	186	2,210	401	285	96	20	2,690	406	90	2,191
1971	3,134	675	165	2,290	366	268	81	17	2,768	407	84	2,273
1972	3,153	662	155	2,332	338	248	71	19	2,815	414	84	2,313
1973	3,211	657	140	2,408	311	230	59	22	2,900	427	81	2,387
1974	3,227	656	131	2,440	301	225	54	22	2,931	431	77	2,418
Percentage distribution:												
1955	100.0	31.8	16.0	52.2	100.0	56.7	37.4	5.9	100.0	20.9	6.6	72.5
1960	100.0	27.4	10.5	62.1	100.0	60.6	30.1	9.3	100.0	17.3	4.6	78.0
1965	100.0	23.4	7.8	68.8	100.0	64.1	28.0	7.9	100.0	14.8	3.6	81.6
1970	100.0	22.4	6.0	71.5	100.0	71.1	23.9	5.0	100.0	15.1	3.3	81.4
1971	100.0	21.5	5.3	73.1	100.0	73.2	22.1	4.6	100.0	14.7	3.0	82.1
1972	100.0	21.0	4.9	74.0	100.0	73.4	21.0	5.6	100.0	14.7	3.0	82.1
1973	100.0	20.5	4.4	75.0	100.0	74.0	19.0	7.1	100.0	14.7	2.8	82.3
1974	100.0	20.3	4.1	75.5	100.0	74.8	17.9	7.3	100.0	14.7	2.6	82.5

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 7.—Number of Employees and Women as Percentage of All Employees, by Sex

Year	Total		Women			Men	
	Paid employees (10,000 persons)	Indices	Paid employees (10,000 persons)	Indices	Percentage of all paid employees	Paid employees (10,000 persons)	Indices
1955	1,778	100.0	531	100.0	29.9	1,247	100.0
1960	2,370	133.3	738	139.0	31.1	1,632	130.9
1965	2,876	161.8	913	171.9	31.7	1,963	157.4
1970	3,306	185.9	1,096	206.4	33.2	2,210	177.2
1971	3,406	191.6	1,116	210.2	32.8	2,290	183.6
1972	3,452	194.2	1,120	210.9	32.4	2,332	187.0
1973	3,595	202.2	1,186	223.4	33.0	2,408	193.1
1974	3,610	203.0	1,171	220.5	32.4	2,440	195.7

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 8.—Number of Employees and Percentage Distribution, by Sex and Industry

[10,000 persons]

	Total	Agriculture and forestry	Fisheries and aquaculture	Mining	Construction	Manufacturing	A (see note)	B (see note)	Services	Government
TOTAL										
1955	1,178(100.0)	74(4.2)	24(1.3)	40(2.2)	152(8.5)	563(31.7)	327(18.4)	182(10.2)	285(16.0)	131(7.4)
1960	2,370(100.0)	94(4.0)	26(1.1)	42(1.8)	198(8.4)	799(33.7)	449(18.9)	232(9.8)	388(16.4)	142(6.0)
1965	2,876(100.0)	59(2.1)	24(.8)	29(1.0)	268(9.3)	993(34.5)	593(20.6)	287(10.0)	465(16.2)	158(5.5)
1970	3,306(100.0)	29(.9)	18(.5)	18(.5)	305(9.2)	1,144(34.6)	731(22.1)	340(10.3)	558(16.9)	161(4.9)
1971	3,406(100.0)	25(.7)	20(.6)	18(.5)	323(9.5)	1,154(33.9)	765(22.5)	348(10.2)	585(17.2)	167(4.9)
1972	3,452(100.0)	26(.8)	19(.6)	15(.4)	341(9.9)	1,151(33.3)	779(22.6)	339(9.8)	604(17.5)	175(5.1)
1973	3,595(100.0)	29(.8)	18(.5)	13(.4)	364(10.1)	1,197(33.3)	817(22.7)	352(9.8)	622(17.3)	179(5.0)
1974	3,610(100.0)	30(.8)	17(.5)	13(.4)	358(9.9)	1,193(33.0)	836(23.2)	342(9.5)	629(17.4)	190(5.3)
WOMEN										
1955	531(100.0)	31(5.8)	3(.6)	6(1.1)	20(3.8)	193(36.3)	112(21.1)	20(3.8)	127(23.9)	19(3.6)
1960	738(100.0)	37(5.0)	3(.4)	4(.5)	29(3.9)	269(36.4)	166(22.5)	26(3.5)	182(24.7)	23(3.1)
1965	913(100.0)	20(2.2)	2(.2)	3(.3)	40(4.4)	333(36.5)	239(26.2)	31(3.4)	219(24.0)	25(2.7)
1970	1,096(100.0)	10(.9)	2(.2)	2(.2)	45(4.1)	390(35.6)	314(28.6)	43(3.9)	265(24.2)	25(2.3)
1971	1,116(100.0)	8(.7)	2(.2)	2(.2)	46(4.1)	388(34.8)	317(28.4)	44(3.9)	279(25.0)	30(2.7)
1972	1,120(100.0)	7(.6)	1(.1)	2(.2)	47(4.2)	377(33.7)	329(29.4)	42(3.8)	283(25.3)	31(2.8)
1973	1,186(100.0)	8(.7)	2(.2)	1(.1)	52(4.4)	404(34.1)	350(29.5)	43(3.6)	295(24.9)	31(2.6)
1974	1,171(100.0)	8).7)	1(.1)	1(.1)	49(4.2)	390(33.3)	350(29.9)	40(3.4)	299(25.5)	31(2.6)
MEN										
1955	1,247(100.0)	43(3.4)	21(1.7)	34(2.7)	132(10.6)	370(29.7)	215(17.2)	162(13.0)	158(12.7)	112(9.0)
1960	1,632(100.0)	57(3.5)	23(1.4)	38(2.3)	169(10.4)	530(32.5)	283(17.3)	206(12.6)	206(12.6)	119(7.3)
1965	1,963(100.0)	39(2.0)	22(1.1)	25(1.3)	228(11.6)	660(33.6)	354(18.0)	256(13.0)	246(12.5)	133(6.8)
1970	2,210(100.0)	20(.9)	16(.7)	16(.7)	260(11.8)	754(34.1)	418(18.9)	296(13.4)	294(13.3)	136(6.2)
1971	2,290(100.0)	17(.7)	18(.8)	16(.7)	277(12.1)	766(33.4)	448(19.6)	304(13.3)	306(13.4)	137(6.0)
1972	2,332(100.0)	19(.8)	18(.8)	13(.6)	294(12.6)	775(33.2)	450(19.3)	297(12.7)	321(13.8)	144(6.2)
1973	2,408(100.0)	22(.9)	16(.7)	12(.5)	312(13.0)	793(32.9)	467(19.4)	309(12.8)	327(13.6)	148(6.1)
1974	2,440(100.0)	22(.9)	15(.6)	12(.5)	309(12.7)	803(32.9)	487(20.0)	302(12.4)	330(13.5)	159(6.5)

NOTES.—A. Wholesale and retail trade, finance, insurance, and real estate. B. Transportation, communication, electricity, gas, and water supply. Figures in parentheses are percent distribution.

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 9.—Number of Women Employees and Women as Percentage of All Employees, by Industry

Industry	Number of women employees (10,000 persons)						Indices						Women as percentage of all employees					
	1955	1960	1965	1970	1973	1974	1955	1960	1965	1970	1973	1974	1955	1960	1965	1970	1973	1974
Total	531	738	913	1,096	1,186	1,171	100	139	172	206	223	221	29.9	31.1	31.7	33.2	33.0	32.4
Agriculture and forestry	31	37	20	10	8	8	100	119	65	32	26	26	41.9	39.4	33.9	34.5	27.6	26.7
Fishery and aquaculture	3	3	2	2	2	1	100	100	67	67	67	33	12.5	11.5	8.3	11.1	11.1	5.9
Mining	6	4	3	2	1	1	100	67	50	33	17	17	15.0	9.5	6.9	11.1	7.7	7.7
Construction	20	29	40	45	52	49	100	145	200	225	260	245	13.2	14.6	14.9	14.8	14.3	13.7
Manufacturing	193	269	333	390	404	390	100	139	173	202	209	202	34.3	33.7	33.5	34.1	33.8	32.7
Wholesale and retail trade				257	286	284										42.1	42.4	41.3
Finance, insurance, and real estate	112	166	239	57	64	66	100	148	213	280	255	313	34.3	37.0	40.3	47.1	44.8	44.3
Transportation, communication, electricity, gas, and water	20	26	31	43	43	40	100	130	155	215	215	200	11.0	11.2	10.8	12.6	12.2	11.7
Services	127	182	219	265	295	299	100	143	172	209	232	235	44.6	46.9	47.1	47.5	47.4	47.5
Government	19	23	25	25	31	31	100	121	132	132	163	163	14.5	16.2	15.8	15.5	17.3	16.3

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 10.—Number of Women Employees and Women as Percentage of All Employees, by Medium Industry Group

Industry	Number of women employees (1,000 persons)			Increasing rate (percentage)			Women as percentage of all employees		
	1960	1965	1970	1960–70	1960–65	1965–70	1960	1965	1970
Total	2,563	3,225	3,684	43.7	25.8	14.2	31.4	32.4	32.4
Food and tobacco manufactures	273	394	408	49.6	44.2	3.7	37.6	43.4	45.3
Textile mill products	783	783	631	−19.3	0	−19.3	68.0	65.7	62.6
Apparel and other finished products made from fabrics and similar materials	183	247	298	62.5	34.5	20.8	63.2	68.0	71.0
Lumber and wood products	95	120	25	32.2	27.0	4.1	21.8	26.0	28.5
Furniture and fixtures	24	46	59	145.6	92.5	27.6	12.1	19.5	22.7
Pulp, paper, and finished allied products	85	107	94	10.8	26.7	−12.5	32.0	33.8	31.1
Publishing, printing, and related industries	69	109	128	86.3	57.9	18.0	19.0	23.0	24.3
Chemical and related industries	119	149	157	32.5	25.0	6.0	23.8	25.5	25.3
Petroleum and coal products	6	5	8	30.5	−8.5	42.5	14.8	14.1	14.9
Rubber products	64	59	75	17.5	−8.0	27.6	41.2	39.4	39.9
Leather and their products, fur	19	30	27	44.4	62.0	−10.9	29.5	33.0	37.0
Stone, clay, glass, and pottery products	106	130	162	52.5	22.4	24.7	26.6	28.1	28.9
Iron, steel, and nonferrous metal industries	62	83	90	45.4	33.9	8.6	10.5	12.3	11.5
Fabricated metal products	98	138	214	119.6	41.5	55.2	16.8	17.7	20.2
Machinery and weapons	85	128	183	114.9	49.7	43.5	12.9	13.8	16.7
Electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies	245	333	568	131.9	35.9	70.7	36.8	37.5	43.3
Transportation equipment	60	85	135	123.1	41.6	57.5	10.7	12.3	14.5
Precision machine	51	86	114	121.4	66.9	32.7	29.3	36.9	40.7
Miscellaneous manufacturing industries	137	194	207	51.2	41.7	6.7	39.9	41.3	38.0

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Population Census."

Table 11.—Number of Employees and Percentage Distribution, by Sex and Occupation

Year	Total	Professional and technical workers	Managers and officials	Clerical and related workers	Sales workers	Farmers, lumbermen, and fishermen	Workers in mining and quarrying occupations	Workers in transport and communication occupations	Craftsmen and production process workers	Laborers	Service workers
Both sexes:											
Employees (10,000 persons):											
1960	2,273	180	79	474	167	73	35	95	892		197
1965	2,783	202	116	629	238	59	20	184	882	222	232
1970	3,306	246	131	723	344	42	10	219	1,123	199	267
1971	3,406	260	144	745	365	38	9	228	1,195	139	280
1972	3,452	275	174	743	366	40	8	222	1,197	138	286
1973	3,595	275	184	771	391	41	6	218	1,268	141	297
1974	3,610	284	190	786	404	40	7	215	1,243	141	298
Percentage:											
1960	100.0	8.2	3.6	21.6	7.6	3.3	1.6	4.3	40.7		9.0
1965	100.0	7.3	4.2	22.6	8.6	2.1	.7	6.6	31.7	8.0	8.3
1970	100.0	7.4	4.0	21.9	10.4	1.3	.3	6.6	34.0	6.0	8.1
1971	100.0	7.6	4.2	21.9	10.7	1.1	.3	6.7	35.1	4.1	8.2
1972	100.0	8.0	5.0	21.5	10.6	1.2	.2	6.4	34.7	4.0	8.3
1973	100.0	7.6	5.1	21.4	10.9	1.1	.2	6.1	35.3	3.9	8.3
1974	100.0	7.9	5.3	21.8	11.2	1.1	.2	6.0	34.4	3.9	8.3
Women:											
Employees (10,000 persons):											
1960	695	60	2	170	58	24	2	5	240		108
1965	873	76	4	251	88	14	1	22	220	70	127
1970	1,096	100	5	339	112	10	1	22	291	66	150
1971	1,116	109	6	348	115	8	1	21	311	44	154
1972	1,120	115	9	348	116	8	1	19	306	44	152
1973	1,186	117	11	365	129	9	0	17	332	46	161
1974	1,171	125	11	371	124	8	0	17	312	46	155
Percentage:											
1960	100.0	9.0	.3	25.4	8.7	3.6	.3	.7	35.9		16.1
1965	100.0	8.7	.5	28.8	10.1	1.6	.1	2.5	25.2	8.0	14.5
1970	100.0	9.1	.5	30.9	10.2	.9	.1	2.0	26.6	6.0	13.7
1971	100.0	9.8	.5	31.2	10.3	.7	.1	1.9	27.9	3.9	13.8
1972	100.0	10.3	.8	31.1	10.4	.7	.1	1.7	27.3	3.9	13.6
1973	100.0	9.9	.9	30.8	10.9	.8	.0	1.4	28.0	3.9	13.6
1974	100.0	10.7	1.0	31.7	10.6	.7	.0	1.4	26.7	3.9	13.3
Men:											
Employees (10,000 persons):											
1960	1,578	120	78	304	109	49	33	89	652		89
1965	1,911	126	111	378	151	44	19	162	666	152	105
1970	2,210	146	127	384	231	32	9	197	831	133	117
1971	2,290	151	139	397	250	30	9	207	884	96	127
1972	2,332	161	165	395	249	32	7	203	891	93	133
1973	2,408	157	174	406	262	32	6	202	936	95	136
1974	2,440	159	178	416	280	32	6	198	931	94	143
Percentage:											
1960	100.0	7.9	5.1	20.0	7.2	3.2	2.2	5.8	42.8		5.8
1965	100.0	6.6	5.8	19.8	7.9	2.3	1.0	8.5	34.6	8.0	5.5
1970	100.0	6.6	5.7	17.4	10.5	1.4	.4	8.9	37.6	6.0	5.3
1971	100.0	6.6	6.1	17.3	10.9	1.3	.4	9.0	38.6	4.2	5.5
1972	100.0	6.9	7.1	16.9	10.7	1.4	.3	8.7	38.2	4.0	5.7
1973	100.0	6.5	7.2	16.9	10.9	1.3	.2	8.4	38.9	3.9	5.6
1974	100.0	6.5	7.3	17.0	11.5	1.3	.3	8.1	38.2	3.9	5.9

Table 11.—Number of Employees and Percentage Distribution, by Sex and Occupation—Continued

Year	Total	Professional and technical workers	Managers and officials	Clerical and related workers	Sales workers	Farmers, lumbermen, and fishermen	Workers in mining and quarrying occupations	Workers in transport and communication occupations	Craftsmen and production process workers	Laborers	Service workers
Women as percentage of all employees:											
1960	30.6	33.3	2.5	35.9	34.7	32.9	5.7	5.3	26.9		54.8
1965	31.4	37.6	3.4	39.9	37.0	23.7	5.0	12.0	24.9	31.5	54.7
1970	33.2	40.7	3.8	46.9	32.6	23.8	10.0	10.0	25.9	33.2	56.2
1971	32.8	41.9	4.2	46.7	31.5	21.1	11.1	9.2	26.0	31.7	55.0
1972	32.4	41.8	5.2	46.8	31.7	20.0	12.5	8.6	25.6	31.9	53.1
1973	33.0	42.5	6.0	47.3	33.0	22.0	.0	7.8	26.2	32.6	54.2
1974	32.4	44.0	5.8	47.2	30.7	20.0	.0	7.9	25.1	32.6	52.0

Note.—No adjustment is made to the figures from 1960 and 1965, though the survey was revised in 1967.

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 12.—Number of Women Employees and Women as Percentage of All Employees, by Occupation

Occupation	Number of women employees (1,000 persons)			Increasing rate (percentage)			Women as percentage of all employees		
	1960	1965	1970	1960–1970	1960–1965	1965–1970	1960	1965	1970
Total	7,109	9,199	10,849	52.6	29.4	17.9	30.3	31.6	32.3
Professional and technical workers	645	836	1,103	71.0	29.6	32.0	35.6	36.6	37.6
Managers and officials	38	78	93	143.3	105.0	18.7	4.1	5.6	4.7
Clerical and related workers	1,615	2,573	3,337	106.5	57.0	31.5	36.2	42.4	47.8
Sales workers	641	1,002	1,170	82.6	56.3	16.8	34.2	36.7	35.3
Farmers, lumbermen, and fishermen	187	122	95	−49.0	−34.6	−22.1	24.4	21.1	20.7
Workers in mining and quarrying occupations	25	11	6	−77.5	−55.8	−49.1	7.1	5.1	4.6
Workers in transport and communications occupations	182	252	224	23.3	38.4	−10.9	13.6	12.7	10.2
Craftsmen, production process workers, and laborers	2,532	2,955	3,325	31.4	16.7	12.5	25.7	25.9	26.2
Service workers	5	5	9	91.8	4.1	84.3	1.0	.9	1.4
Protective service workers	1,237	1,400	1,486	20.1	13.2	6.1	75.4	72.5	68.9

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Population Census."

Table 13.—Professional and Technical Workers, by Minor Occupation Group (1970)

Occupation	Both sexes		Female	
	Employed persons	Employees	Employed persons	Employees
Professional and technical workers	3,427,550	2,887,195	1,256,425	1,081,945
Scientific researchers	99,250	98,860	5,160	5,155
Natural science researchers	96,980	96,650	4,855	4,850
Cultural and social science researchers	2,270	2,210	305	305
Engineers and technicians	701,040	670,770	9,795	9,770
Mining engineers	2,505	2,475	5	5
Metallurgical engineers	14,140	14,105	35	35
Mechanical engineers	119,665	116,900	420	420
Electrical engineers	123,195	121,115	390	390
Chemical engineers	36,180	36,035	765	765
Architects	111,600	92,775	1,275	1,275
Civil engineers	139,805	135,170	470	470
Agricultural and forestry technicians	63,250	62,400	915	915
Computer processing technicians	44,990	44,920	4,470	4,470
Other engineers and technicians	45,710	44,875	1,050	1,025

Table 13.—Professional and Technical Workers, by Minor Occupation Group (1970)—Continued

Occupation	Both sexes		Female	
	Employed persons	Employees	Employed persons	Employees
Medical and public health technicians	838,250	637,520	558,375	496,680
Physicians	118,765	54,890	11,245	4,605
Dentists	36,835	5,135	4,105	640
Pharmacists	50,170	27,910	24,170	14,515
Midwives	17,225	9,355	17,225	9,355
Public health nurses	15,600	15,600	15,600	15,600
Nutritionists	29,915	29,425	28,485	28,045
Nurses	314,285	310,035	306,780	302,530
Chiropractors, masseurs, acupuncturists, and osteopathists	61,265	12,590	21,080	6,260
Other medical and public health technicians	194,190	172,580	129,685	115,130
Judicial workers	31,825	14,025	1,735	1,265
Judges, prosecuters, and lawyers	12,490	5,110	300	195
Other judicial workers	19,335	8,915	1,435	1,070
Registered accountants	23,400	3,525	665	245
Registered accountants and licensed tax accountants	23,400	3,525	665	245
Professors and teachers	1,000,865	992,970	379,375	373,910
Kindergarten teachers	52,395	49,645	49,740	48,070
Primary school teachers	364,950	364,950	187,375	187,375
Secondary school teachers	218,600	218,600	59,500	59,500
High school teachers	216,380	216,380	40,280	40,280
Professors; college and university	82,775	82,775	12,445	12,445
Teachers in blind, dumb, and protective schools	11,830	11,830	5,280	5,280
Other teachers	53,935	48,790	24,755	20,960
Religious workers	103,955	47,280	20,465	9,730
Authors, reporters, and editors	77,060	65,025	9,725	8,525
Authors	10,840	3,105	1,670	680
Reporters and editors	66,220	61,920	8,055	7,485
Fine artists, designers, and photographers	118,625	74,240	30,445	23,515
Sculpture artists and craftsmen	13,635	1,640	1,755	355
Designers	70,630	54,940	26,450	22,325
Photographers and cameramen	34,360	17,660	2,240	835
Musicians, stage artists, and professional sportsmen	95,615	52,970	41,405	17,265
Musicians	49,610	24,130	27,910	10,585
Actors, stage dancers, and performers	33,790	21,445	12,960	6,225
Professional sportsmen	12,215	7,395	535	455
Miscellaneous professional and technical workers	337,665	230,010	199,280	135,885
Veterinarians	10,790	6,835	175	90
Kindergarteners	95,845	94,275	95,845	94,275
Social and welfare workers	35,995	33,950	16,140	15,230
Private teachers	98,690	13,500	65,670	6,090
Professional and technical workers not elsewhere classified	96,345	81,450	21,450	20,200

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Population Census."

Table 14.—Craftsmen, Production Process Workers, and Laborers, by Minor Occupation Group

Occupation	Both sexes		Female	
	Employed persons	Employees	Employed persons	Employees
Craftsmen, production process workers, and laborers	16,591,475	12,844,315	4,936,425	3,380,325
Metal material workers	450,390	428,930	29,640	25,130
Iron and steel furnacemen and pourers	63,715	63,370	720	720
Nonferrous metal smelters and pourers	25,585	25,175	595	535
Molders	132,655	124,825	12,925	11,130
Forgers and hammermen	32,670	23,900	1,815	400
Metal rolling mill operators	57,930	57,660	885	855
Wire drawing machine operators	16,695	16,225	1,085	985
Tempering workers	27,155	26,835	930	855
Other metal material workers	93,985	90,940	10,685	9,650
Metal processing, machine repairing, and assembling workers	2,275,670	1,902,985	313,785	227,230
Metal cutting machine operators	518,295	453,310	47,205	33,405
Metal press machine operators	209,720	174,090	43,780	31,255
Welders and flamecutters	479,280	423,955	20,285	13,810
Boiler makers, iron founders, and riveters	129,265	116,870	.....	.....
Tinsmiths, coppersmiths, and sheet metal workers	201,620	132,280	11,385	5,305
Metal engravers	10,620	6,485	2,090	1,295
Galvanizers	60,010	55,645	10,880	9,600
Hand finishers	23,840	21,965	5,850	4,980
Other metal processing workers	643,020	518,385	172,310	127,580
General machine assembling and repairing workers	517,890	484,820	43,075	39,300
General machine assemblers	290,490	276,200	39,020	36,435
General machine repairmen	227,400	208,620	4,055	2,865
Electric machine assembling and repairing workers	936,345	843,060	488,740	431,205
Electric machine assemblers and repairmen	694,600	611,620	361,650	311,455
Semi-conductor products makers	36,500	35,785	27,070	26,435
Electric lamp and electronic tube assemblers	38,085	33,705	22,205	19,245
Electric wire and cable makers	25,505	24,805	6,520	6,210
Other electric machine assembling and repairing workers	141,655	137,145	71,295	67,860
Transportation equipment assembling and repairing workers	627,285	546,025	23,085	16,055
Automobile assemblers	88,235	87,540	9,260	9,260
Automobile repairmen	337,810	287,540	5,140	1,775
Railway car assemblers and repairmen	49,060	49,005	570	570
Ship assemblers and repairmen	31,495	30,730	365	365
Aircraft assemblers and repairmen	12,200	12,200	160	160
Bicycle assemblers and repairmen	35,265	6,575	4,440	925
Other transportation equipment assembling and repairing workers	73,220	72,435	3,150	3,000
Meter and optical instrument assembling and repairing workers	185,175	151,385	73,515	65,815
Watch assemblers and repairmen	50,940	31,360	16,965	15,245
Lens grinders and adjusters	19,205	16,020	7,775	6,550
Optical instrument assemblers and repairmen	30,870	27,540	16,005	14,430
Meter assemblers and adjusters	46,205	42,935	16,060	14,710
Other meter and optical instrument assembling and repairing workers	37,955	33,530	16,710	14,880

See footnote at end of table.

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Table 14.—Craftsmen, Production Process Workers, and Laborers, by Minor Occupation Group—Continued

Occupation	Both sexes		Female	
	Employed persons	Employees	Employed persons	Employees
Silk reel and textile workers	**1,111,175**	**720,340**	**788,745**	**520,760**
Silk reelers	16,220	14,530	15,010	13,665
Spinners	104,225	102,850	87,930	87,135
Doublers and thread and yarn twisters	58,965	34,965	40,500	27,265
Winders	18,365	10,805	16,855	10,365
Loom preparers	43,050	29,965	28,355	21,605
Weavers	289,185	155,855	226,865	136,310
Knitters	178,545	64,725	134,525	43,680
Net and rope makers (except metal and straw)	29,705	18,100	20,770	12,805
Textile and yarn washers and bleachers	29,765	27,090	11,000	9,710
Textile dyers	97,730	67,485	28,730	15,915
Other silk reel and textile workers	245,420	193,970	178,205	142,305
Garment and related textile fabrics workers	**1,258,985**	**514,600**	**1,007,850**	**424,910**
Tailors	145,640	31,295	51,140	12,415
Kimono makers	136,675	12,955	132,765	12,430
Dressmakers for ladies and children	224,535	56,525	211,440	54,195
Sewing machinists	502,470	296,690	432,755	268,835
Cutters	44,670	34,215	18,870	14,675
Embroiderers	32,885	8,790	27,870	7,505
Other textile fabrics workers	172,110	74,130	133,010	54,855
Wood, bamboo, grass, and vine products workers	**734,120**	**508,310**	**176,455**	**117,010**
Sawyers	156,480	133,915	25,420	21,305
Chippermen	10,815	10,110	5,075	4,835
Veneer makers	58,070	56,530	20,470	19,915
Wood workers	67,495	47,880	12,000	7,195
Joiners, cabinet makers, and related wood workers	259,565	159,835	42,675	24,615
Ship carpenters	16,075	11,090		
Coopers	8,675	2,360	1,000	435
Bamboo products makers	23,495	5,330	9,855	2,605
Grass and vine products makers	27,350	7,710	14,945	4,160
Other wood, bamboo, grass, and vine products workers	106,100	73,550	45,015	31,945
Pulp, paper, and paper products workers	**238,050**	**179,710**	**102,270**	**66,490**
Pulp makers and paper makers	19,000	18,745	1,365	1,295
Paper millers	33,995	32,055	4,885	3,935
Paper container makers	7,515	42,025	35,640	20,785
Paper products workers	32,290	15,645	24,935	11,320
Other pulp, paper and paper products workers	85,250	71,240	35,445	29,155
Printing and bookbinding workers	**346,770**	**282,120**	**88,580**	**64,635**
General stereotypers	39,640	35,740	3,940	3,120
Type-pickers and type-setters	51,050	46,555	15,375	13,260
Pressmen	164,805	127,985	24,785	14,730
Bookbinders	51,355	37,335	25,765	18,000
Other printing and bookbinding workers	39,920	34,505	18,715	15,525
Rubber and plastic products workers	**359,675**	**284,130**	**136,475**	**99,065**
Rubber makers	10,920	10,660	985	925
Rubber products formers	89,025	74,925	28,430	23,170
Plastic products formers and finishers	196,190	146,305	70,945	47,220
Other rubber and plastic products workers	63,540	52,240	36,115	27,750

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Table 14.—Craftsmen, Production Process Workers, and Laborers, by Minor Occupation Group—Continued

Occupation	Both sexes		Female	
	Employed persons	Employees	Employed persons	Employees
Leather and leather products workers	97,775	50,320	38,265	19,735
Leather tanners	12,345	8,660	3,385	2,090
Shoemakers and shoe repairmen	63,450	31,710	23,645	12,895
Other leather and leather products makers	21,980	9,950	11,235	4,750
Ceramic, clay, and stone products workers	419,245	339,610	126,550	97,270
Ceramic raw material workers	15,325	14,335	1,955	1,580
Glass formers	24,365	22,940	2,825	2,495
Potters	67,465	52,045	30,635	23,255
Ceramic decorators	22,580	14,930	15,390	10,515
Brick, tile, and earthen pipe makers	36,030	27,290	10,870	7,270
Cement workers	6,340	6,340	150	150
Cement products makers	72,685	64,895	17,060	14,810
Stone cutters	54,175	29,595	5,765	2,025
Other ceramic, clay, and stone products workers	120,280	107,240	41,900	35,170
Food and beverage manufacturing workers	680,645	434,745	309,800	203,230
Grain polishers and millers	31,015	14,095	9,015	1,975
Bakers and confectioners	213,900	130,680	76,015	47,530
Macaroni and other noodle makers	30,760	15,535	15,140	8,057
Tofu (bean-curds), paste of arum root and other allied products makers	67,770	12,445	31,715	6,495
Sugar makers	4,580	4,490	380	345
Tea processing workers	5,500	2,385	1,730	650
Miso makers and soy makers	16,215	12,695	4,210	3,065
Canned and bottled food makers	24,790	24,380	19,925	19,750
Sake, beer, and other alcoholic beverage makers	12,970	12,340	2,150	1,975
Nonalcoholic beverage makers	8,225	7,055	3,085	2,605
Dairy products makers	16,095	15,350	3,330	3,040
Aquatic products processing workers	110,620	71,225	72,600	49,865
Oil and fat of animals or plants makers	5,770	5,040	780	520
Other food and beverage manufacturing makers	132,435	107,030	69,725	57,340
Chemical products workers	290,595	285,725	46,970	45,045
Chemical operatives	185,345	184,480	13,725	13,490
Oil and fat processing workers	7,485	7,155	1,325	1,265
Other chemical products workers	97,765	94,090	31,920	30,290
Construction workers	2,633,920	1,926,205	178,500	157,775
Construction laborers	769,260	729,685	145,855	142,205
Stationary engine and construction machinery operators	262,315	259,255	670	670
Electrical workers	507,725	463,375	4,395	3,310

See footnote at end of table.

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Table 14.—Craftsmen, Production Process Workers, and Laborers, by Minor Occupation Group—Continued

Occupation	Both sexes		Female	
	Employed persons	Employees	Employed persons	Employees
Miscellaneous craftsmen and production process workers	1,207,075	901,685	477,250	339,520
Tobacco workers	11,350	11,350	6,470	6,470
Painters	300,905	220,130	49,215	34,250
Lacquerers	16,585	5,070	6,135	1,915
Upholsterers	13,385	10,055	4,130	3,075
Paperhangers	27,500	7,290	5,475	690
Japanese umbrella, lantern, and fan makers	3,680	635	2,150	445
Jewelers, goldsmiths, silversmiths; shell, horn, and tusk makers	25,835	13,135	8,425	4,775
Stamp engravers	11,820	3,265	2,150	680
Umbrella setters	8,445	2,015	4,665	1,150
Luggage and handbag makers	45,205	15,145	23,615	7,350
Toy makers	41,480	16,145	29,870	11,350
Drawingmen	223,570	214,865	27,615	25,555
Loftsmen	7,930	7,930	280	280
Package wrappers	254,575	225,940	217,720	191,325
Motion picture projectionists	6,515	6,305	250	215
Other miscellaneous craftsmen and production process workers	208,295	142,410	89,085	49,995
Laborers not elsewhere classified	1,450,150	1,336,980	481,810	416,165
Packers and wrappers	130,650	125,320	33,615	31,225
Warehousemen	151,605	150,815	9,365	9,140
Longshoremen	43,675	43,040	1,530	1,320
Stevedores and carriers	193,260	185,855	16,775	14,775
Railway station laborers	31,525	31,525	2,890	2,890
Deliverymen	234,245	180,800	53,575	31,420
Other laborers	665,190	619,625	364,060	325,395

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Population Census." (1970)

Table 15.—Number of Employees and Paid Employment Rate, by Sex and Age Group

[Percentage]

Year	Percent	Total (10,000 persons)	15 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 54	55 to 64	65 and over
Total:										
Employees:										
1960	100.0	2,273	14.3	33.9		23.7		26.8		1.3
1965	100.0	2,783	11.1	21.0	14.7	24.8		21.0	5.9	1.5
1970	100.0	3,306	7.8	20.6	14.5	12.1	11.9	24.2	6.8	2.0
1971	100.0	3,406	7.0	21.3	13.6	12.0	11.9	25.0	7.2	2.1
1972	100.0	3,452	5.9	20.0	13.9	12.1	12.1	26.0	7.3	2.2
1973	100.0	3,595	5.4	18.3	14.5	12.7	12.1	27.1	7.6	2.4
1974	100.0	3,610	4.8	16.8	15.3	13.1	12.0	28.0	7.6	2.4
Paid employment rate:										
1960	34.9		35.2	48.4		37.4		26.9		5.1
1965	38.2		28.5	62.9	49.5	44.4		37.8	22.5	7.0
1970	41.9		27.8	73.5	53.1	48.1	48.4	44.6	27.7	9.1
1971	42.7		27.2	63.9	53.8	49.0	48.9	46.0	29.2	9.5
1972	44.7		24.5	63.3	54.4	49.8	49.9	47.0	29.8	9.6
1973	43.8		23.5	63.1	55.1	51.4	51.5	48.8	31.6	10.5
1974	43.5		21.3	62.5	55.7	51.2	51.8	49.2	31.6	10.3
Women:										
Employees:										
1960	100.0	692	23.4	39.6		17.3		19.0		.7
1965	100.0	873	18.0	28.8	11.3	15.8		19.1	3.9	.8
1970	100.0	1,096	12.6	28.9	11.3	8.1	9.7	23.0	5.4	1.1
1971	100.0	1,116	11.2	29.6	10.2	8.1	9.8	24.1	5.8	1.2
1972	100.0	1,120	9.6	28.0	10.7	8.7	10.0	25.5	6.2	1.2
1973	100.0	1,186	8.9	28.5	11.7	9.0	10.3	26.7	6.5	1.4
1974	100.0	1,171	7.6	23.9	12.7	9.3	10.2	28.0	6.7	1.5
Paid employment rate:										
1960	20.5		35.1	33.6		16.1		15.1		1.6
1965	23.2		29.5	54.2	23.8	20.3		19.9	8.9	2.0
1970	27.0		30.3	59.8	27.1	21.3	26.0	26.5	13.5	2.9
1971	27.2		28.9	59.0	26.3	21.6	26.4	27.6	14.4	3.1
1972	27.0		26.1	57.6	27.0	22.2	26.9	28.6	15.1	3.0
1973	28.0		26.0	57.9	29.0	24.0	28.8	30.5	16.4	3.7
1974	27.3		22.4	57.6	29.7	23.4	28.5	30.7	16.6	3.6
Men:										
Employees:										
1960	100.0	1,578	10.3	31.4		26.5		30.2		1.6
1965	100.0	1,911	8.0	17.4	16.2	27.8		21.8	6.9	1.9
1970	100.0	2,211	5.4	16.5	16.2	14.0	13.0	24.8	7.5	2.4
1971	100.0	2,290	4.9	17.2	15.2	13.9	12.9	25.4	7.8	2.5
1972	100.0	2,332	4.1	16.2	15.4	14.4	13.1	26.3	7.8	2.6
1973	100.0	2,408	3.7	14.7	15.9	14.5	13.0	27.3	8.1	2.8
1974	100.0	2,440	3.4	13.4	16.6	14.9	12.8	28.0	8.0	2.8
Paid employment rate:										
1960	50.1		35.4	64.0		60.6		43.3		9.5
1965	54.2		27.5	71.5	76.0	68.8		59.0	37.1	13.6
1970	57.8		25.5	67.8	80.0	75.2	70.4	64.8	42.9	16.9
1971	59.3		25.3	68.7	81.9	77.1	71.3	66.4	45.9	17.7
1972	59.7		22.6	68.7	81.8	77.9	72.7	67.4	47.0	17.9
1973	60.7		21.1	68.4	81.7	79.1	74.2	68.7	50.0	19.2
1974	60.8		20.0	67.0	82.2	79.4	75.2	68.9	49.6	18.6

NOTES.—1. Paid employment rate $= \frac{\text{Employees}}{\text{Population 15 years old and over}} \times 100$.

2. No adjustment is made to the figures from 1960 and 1965, though the survey was revised in 1967.

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 16.—Number of Women Employees and Paid Employment Rate, by Marital Status

	Total	Single	Married	Widowed and divorced
EMPLOYEES (10,000 PERSONS)				
1962	769	456	225	87
1965	860	466	300	94
1970	1,086	524	450	112
1971	1,109	514	479	116
1972	1,113	483	513	116
1973	1,179	482	570	126
	(1,186)	(482)	(576)	(127)
1974	1,163	456	582	124
	(1,171)	(457)	(588)	(125)
PERCENTAGE				
1962	100.0	59.4	29.3	11.3
1965	100.0	54.2	34.9	10.9
1970	100.0	48.3	41.4	10.3
1971	100.0	46.3	43.2	10.5
1972	100.0	43.4	46.1	10.4
1973	100.0	40.9	48.3	10.7
	(100.0)	(40.6)	(48.7)	(10.7)
1974	100.0	39.2	50.0	10.7
	(100.0)	(39.0)	(50.2)	(10.7)
PAID EMPLOYMENT RATE (PERCENTAGE)				
1962	22.0	49.8	11.1	15.8
1965	22.9	46.3	13.7	16.8
1970	26.7	51.6	18.3	19.1
1971	27.0	52.1	19.0	19.5
1972	26.8	48.3	19.8	19.3
1973	27.8	50.8	21.4	20.4
	(28.0)	(50.8)	(21.6)	(20.5)
1974	27.3	49.0	21.3	19.9
	(27.3)	(49.1)	(21.5)	(20.0)

Note.—Figures in parentheses include agricultural industry.

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 17.—Women Reentrant Employees, by Age Group and Marital Status

[In thousands]

Age group	Total	Single	Married	Widowed or divorced	Women employees as percentage of reentrants
Total	1,094	251	649	194	10.3
15 to 24	179	135	41	2	4.0
25 to 29	156	57	89	11	14.7
30 to 34	141	18	109	14	16.8
35 to 39	171	16	133	23	17.0
40 to 44	158	11	119	28	15.1
45 to 49	121	8	83	31	13.7
50 to 54	86	5	44	37	14.0
55 and older	82	2	31	49	11.2

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "1971 Employment Status Survey."

Table 18.—Women Reentrants, by Age Group, Marital Status, With or Without Children, and Age of Youngest Child at Time of Reentry

[1,000 persons]

		Married, widowed, and divorced									
			Have children								
	Total	Total	Total	Average age of youngest child (years)	Youngest child is 0 to 5 years	Youngest child is 6 to 11 years	Youngest child is 12 to 14 years	Youngest child is 15 years and over	Not reported	Have no children	Never married
Total	1,094	779	628	8.3	265	186	66	106	4	151	315
Age:											
15 to 24	286	66	29	1.7	27	1	0	0	1	37	219
25 to 29	193	142	108	2.8	100	7	0	0	1	34	51
30 to 34	189	167	147	5.0	91	52	4	1	0	20	22
35 to 39	173	161	145	8.3	36	79	21	9	0	16	11
40 to 44	106	99	86	11.5	8	35	23	21	0	13	7
45 to 49	72	70	60	14.2	3	11	14	30	1	10	2
50 to 54	42	40	31	18.8	0	2	4	25	0	9	2
55 and older	33	31	21	24.6	0	0	0	20	0	10	2
Average age (years)	32.4	.....	36.4	.....	30.3	36.7	41.5	48.3	34.1	33.8	23.9
Age at the time of reentry not reported	1	1	1	4.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Employment Status Survey." (1971)

Table 19.—Average Age and Average Length of Service, by Sex

[Size of establishment: 10 or more employees]

Year	Average age			Average length of service (years)		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
1954	31.3	25.4	33.2	6.3	3.6	7.2
1960	30.9	26.3	32.8	6.7	4.0	7.8
1965	31.7	28.1	33.2	6.6	3.9	7.8
1970	33.2	30.2	34.5	7.4	4.4	8.2
1971	33.6	30.8	34.8	7.6	4.5	8.9
1972	34.0	31.4	35.2	7.8	4.7	9.2
1973	34.7	32.3	35.6	8.0	4.7	9.4
	(34.9)	(32.9)	(36.0)	(8.3)	(5.3)	(9.6)
1974	35.0	32.5	36.0	8.3	5.0	9.6
	(35.3)	(33.1)	(36.4)	(8.4)	(5.5)	(9.8)

Note.—Figures in parentheses include persons working in services.

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Basic Survey of Wage Structure."

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Table 20.—Average Length of Service Years, by Age Group and Sex

	1960		1965		1970		1973		1974	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Total	3.6	6.7	3.9	7.8	4.4	8.2	4.7 (5.1)	9.4 (9.5)	5.0 (5.5)	9.6 (9.8)
17 years and younger	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.4 (1.4)	1.2 (1.2)	1.3 (1.3)	1.2 (1.2)
18 and 19	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.4 (1.4)	1.4 (1.3)	1.4 (1.4)	1.4 (1.4)
20 to 24	3.3	3.0	3.2	3.3	3.1	3.3	2.9 (2.8)	3.2 (3.1)	3.0 (2.9)	3.2 (3.2)
25 to 29	5.7	5.4	4.9	5.3	5.2	6.0	4.8 (4.7)	5.9 (5.7)	4.7 (4.6)	5.7 (5.6)
30 to 34	6.9	8.9	6.4	8.2	5.5	5.5	5.0 (5.4)	8.9 (8.8)	5.9 (6.2)	9.0 (8.8)
35 to 39	5.7	10.9	6.3	11.5	6.2	11.2	5.2 (5.8)	11.1(11.1)	5.9 (6.6)	11.3(11.3)
40 to 44	5.7	12.8	5.9	13.7	7.0	15.4	7.0 (8.0)	14.3(14.5)	7.3 (8.2)	14.0(14.2)
45 to 49							7.2 (8.6)	17.4(17.5)	8.3 (9.6)	17.0(17.2)
50 to 54	6.8	13.6	7.0	13.7	7.8	15.2	8.7 (9.4)	17.9(17.9)	8.6 (9.6)	18.3(18.4)
55 to 59							7.6 (8.4)	11.1(12.3)	8.9 (9.6)	12.8(13.5)
60 to 64							8.5 (8.8)	8.6 (9.2)	8.9 (9.4)	9.2 (9.7)
65 years and older	7.3	9.1	7.5	8.9	8.6	9.2	10.9(10.4)	10.2(10.3)	10.6(10.5)	10.1(10.1)

Note.—Figures in parentheses include persons working in services.

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Basic Survey of Wage Structure."

Table 21.—Percentage Distribution of Women Employees, by Level of Education

Year	Total	Never attended school, elementary school, junior high school	Senior high school	Junior college, college and university	Persons attending school
1968	100.0	46.7	44.5	7.8	1.1
1971	100.0	43.5	45.5	10.0	1.1
1974	100.0	41.0	45.2	12.9	.9
	(27.1)	(22.7)	(34.5)	(42.5)	(3.4)

Note.—Figures in parentheses are percentage women employees are of total population.

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Employment Status Survey."

Table 22.—Number of Employees Who Worked Less Than 35 Hours a Week, by Sex (Nonagricultural Industries)

[10,000 persons]

Year	All employees		Women		Men	
	Total	Employees worked less than 35 hours	Total	Employees worked less than 35 hours	Total	Employees worked less than 35 hours
1965	2,600	77(3.0)	788	42(5.3)	1,812	34(1.9)
1970	3,277	216(6.6)	1,086	130(12.0)	2,191	86(3.9)
1971	3,381	238(7.0)	1,109	143(12.9)	2,273	96(4.2)
1972	3,425	240(7.0)	1,113	146(13.1)	2,313	95(3.6)
1973	3,565	278(7.8)	1,179	170(14.4)	2,387	108(4.5)
1974	3,580	302(8.4)	1,163	184(15.8)	2,418	118(4.9)

Note.—Figures in parentheses are percentages that employees who worked less than 35 hours are of all employees.

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey."

Table 23.—Percentage of Persons Entering Higher Education

	1955	1960	1965	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL:								
Total	51.5	57.7	70.7	82.1	85.0	87.2	89.4	90.8
Women	47.4	55.9	69.6	82.7	85.9	88.2	90.6	91.9
Men	55.5	59.6	71.7	81.6	84.1	86.2	88.3	89.7
UNIVERSITY AND 2-YEAR COLLEGE:								
Total	18.4	17.2	25.4	24.2	26.8	29.2	31.2	32.2
Women	14.9	14.2	20.4	23.5	25.9	28.4	30.8	32.2
Men	20.9	19.7	30.1	25.0	27.6	30.0	31.6	32.2

Source: Ministry of Education, "School Basic Survey."

Table 24.—Live Birth Rate

[Per 1,000 population]

	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970	1972	1973
Live birth rate	28.1	19.4	17.2	18.6	18.8	19.3	19.4

Source: Ministry of Health and Welfare, "Vital Statistics."

Table 25.—Average Number of Live Births per Married Woman

	1950	1960	1970
Number of children	3.60	3.22	2.71

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Population Census."

Table 26.—Percentage Distribution of Employed Persons Among New Graduates

[1,000 persons]

	Junior high school					Senior high school				
		Employed persons					Employed persons			
Year	Total	Total	Those having a job	Those entering higher school and having a job	Employment percentage	Total	Total	Those having a job	Those entering higher school and having a job	Employment percentage
1955	1,663	698	634	64(9.2)	41.9	716	341	333	8(2.4)	47.0
1960	1,770	684	633	50(7.3)	38.6	934	573	567	6(1.0)	61.6
1965	2,360	625	549	76(12.0)	26.5	1,160	700	690	10(1.0)	60.3
1970	1,667	271	214	57(21.0)	16.3	1,403	817	803	14(1.7)	58.4
1971	1,622	221	168	58(24.0)	13.7	1,359	760	745	15(2.0)	55.2
1972	1,561	179	134	45(25.2)	11.5	1,318	699	684	15(2.1)	53.9
1973	1,543	145	104	41(28.1)	9.4	1,326	668	653	15(2.3)	50.0
1974	1,624	125	85	41(32.8)	7.7	1,336	642	627	15(2.3)	48.4

Note.—Figures in parentheses are percentages.

Source: Ministry of Education, "School Basic Survey."

Table 27.—Percentage Distribution of Employees Among New Graduates, by Sex and Educational Attainment

Year	Sex	Total	Junior high school	Senior high school	2-year college	University
1955	Total	100.0	62.1	30.3	1.4	6.2
	Women	100.0	71.8	24.8	1.4	2.0
	Men	100.0	55.3	34.2	1.3	9.3
1960	Total	100.0	49.8	41.7	1.3	7.3
	Women	100.0	54.4	42.1	1.7	1.8
	Men	100.0	46.2	41.0	.9	11.8
1965	Total	100.0	41.8	46.8	2.4	9.1
	Women	100.0	43.2	50.8	3.5	2.5
	Men	100.0	40.6	43.4	1.3	14.8
1970	Total	100.0	20.0	60.2	6.0	13.9
	Women	100.0	20.2	64.8	10.5	4.5
	Men	100.0	19.8	56.0	1.7	22.5
1973	Total	100.0	12.9	59.2	8.1	19.8
	Women	100.0	13.0	66.0	14.7	6.3
	Men	100.0	12.7	52.9	2.1	32.4
1974	Total	100.0	11.5	58.5	9.0	21.0
	Women	100.0	11.5	65.0	16.4	9.1
	Men	100.0	11.4	52.4	2.1	34.1

Note.—Includes those entering higher school and having a job.

Source: Ministry of Education, "School Basic Survey."

Table 28.—Labor Force and Labor Force Participation, by Sex and Age Group (1973, 1974, 1975, and 1980)

	Total	Age							
		15 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 54	55 to 64	65 and older
	Labor force (10,000 persons)								
Women:									
1973	2,045	113	350	212	209	238	637	209	77
1974	1,996	95	319	217	209	229	644	208	75
1975	2,000	110	300	210	200	220	880		70
1980	2,040	110	260	170	220	240	980		70
	Labor force participation (percentage)								
1973	48.3	27.9	67.1	44.5	46.8	56.3	61.3	44.5	16.9
1974	46.6	24.0	65.6	43.3	44.9	54.8	60.4	43.6	15.8
1975	46.7	29.2	68.1	40.3	43.2	53.8	56.4		14.0
1980	45.2	28.0	67.2	37.8	40.7	52.5	56.9		11.5
	Labor force (10,000 persons)								
Men:									
1973	3,254	105	413	455	432	414	929	341	165
1974	3,278	97	378	475	449	408	964	340	167
1975	3,340	110	360	520	840		1,000	340	170
1980	3,500	110	300	440	950		1,130	380	190
	Labor force participation (percentage)								
1973	82.0	25.2	79.5	96.9	98.1	98.1	97.2	86.8	46.7
1974	81.6	23.6	77.7	96.5	98.1	98.0	97.1	86.5	45.6
1975	82.6	27.7	78.9	97.4	97.8		97.1	87.0	45.7
1980	81.8	25.8	75.8	97.4	97.8		97.1	87.0	43.2

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Labor Force Survey." Employment Security Bureau, Ministry of Labor, "Estimated Statistics." (1975–1980)

Table 29.—Average Monthly Cash (Yen) Earnings, by Sex, and Differentials Between Women and Men

[Size of establishment: 30 or more employees (men=100)]

Year	Sex	Total cash earnings	Contractual cash earnings	Special cash payments	Differentials between women and men (1)	(2)	(3)
1955	Total	18,343	15,741	2,602			
	Women	9,479	8,229	1,250	44.4	45.4	40.7
	Men	21,349	18,277	3,072			
1960	Total	24,375	19,617	4,758			
	Women	12,414	10,129	2,285	42.8	43.5	39.9
	Men	29,029	23,303	5,726			
1965	Total	39,360	30,936	8,424			
	Women	22,275	17,760	4,515	47.8	48.7	44.8
	Men	46,571	36,496	10,075			
1970	Total	75,670	56,294	19,376			
	Women	45,801	34,482	11,319	50.9	51.7	48.7
	Men	89,934	66,710	23,224			
1973	Total	122,545	88,590	33,955			
	Women	76,324	55,543	20,781	53.1	53.6	52.0
	Men	143,614	103,654	39,960			
1974	Total	154,968	110,456	44,512			
	Women	97,392	70,032	27,360	53.9	54.5	52.4
	Men	180,686	128,513	52,173			

Notes.—(1) Total cash earnings.
(2) Contractual cash earnings.
(3) Special cash payments.
In 1970–1974, the figures include services.
A yen is currently worth about three-tenths U.S. cent; 297.6 yen equaled $1 in August 1975.

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Monthly Labor Survey."

Table 30.—Starting Wages of New Graduates, by Sex, and Differentials Between Women and Men

[In yen]

Year	Junior high school			Senior high school			2-year college			University		
	Women	Men	Differentials between women and men	Women	Men	Differentials between women and men	Women	Men	Differentials between women and men	Women	Men	Differentials between women and men
1960	5,590	5,910	94.6	7,300	8,160	89.5	9,560	10,640	89.8	12,520	13,080	95.7
1965	13,330	13,190	101.1	15,670	16,430	95.4	17,810	18,360	97.0	21,740	22,890	94.6
1970	23,100	23,800	97.1	26,400	28,400	93.0	29,100	30,900	93.6	34,500	37,400	83.7
1971	27,200	28,600	95.1	31,500	34,100	92.4	34,800	36,100	92.2	40,300	43,700	84.0
1972	31,500	32,300	97.5	36,800	39,400	93.4	39,100	41,000	95.4	42,400	49,900	85.0
1973	36,200	37,600	96.3	42,500	45,300	93.8	45,400	47,100	96.4	49,500	57,000	86.8
1974	42,800	45,600	93.9	50,700	55,200	91.8	55,600	60,400	92.1	60,900	67,800	89.8

Note.—A yen is currently worth about three-tenths U.S. cent; 297.6 yen equaled $1 in August 1975.

Source: Ministry of Labor, Employment Security Bureau.

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Table 31.—Starting Wages of Older Entrants, by Sex, Age Group, and Educational Career (Regular Cash Earnings)

[In yen]

Age group	Women				Men			
	Elementary school, high elementary school (old), and junior high school	Middle school (old), and senior high school	Junior college and higher professional school	University	Elementary school, high elementary school (old), and junior high school	Middle school (old), and senior high school	Junior college and higher professional school	University
Total	42,500	47,200	53,800	61,600	72,700	66,200	77,100	76,500
17 and younger	41,200	.....	.....	.....	43,700	.....	.....	.....
18 to 19	45,100	46,700	.....	.....	53,800	51,900	.....	.....
20 to 24	44,300	48,300	52,700	59,400	67,000	61,300	57,800	62,800
25 to 29	43,900	48,800	56,000	67,100	76,500	75,000	76,700	76,500
30 to 34	40,800	46,000	59,800	74,400	83,100	85,400	97,200	104,200
35 to 39	42,500	44,400	62,400	70,800	84,500	93,500	97,200	128,000
40 to 44	41,500	46,600	65,400	89,700	83,200	88,200	116,100	154,500
45 to 49	41,900	44,600	65,100	71,300	82,300	89,700	120,800	149,800
50 to 54	42,500	43,500	75,900	77,200	78,100	86,100	123,600	141,400
55 to 59	42,100	43,100	70,400	33,800	72,700	81,500	108,700	146,800
60 to 64	43,000	45,100	49,900	.....	69,200	70,800	83,200	94,100
65 and older	38,000	37,400	75,400	49,300	60,200	68,300	84,800	107,000

Note.—A yen is currently worth about three-tenths U.S. cent; 297.6 yen equaled $1 in August 1975.

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Basic Survey of Wage Structure."

Table 32.—Differentials Between Women and Men in Average Monthly Earnings, by Age Group

[Men=100.0]

Year	Average monthly earnings	Age											
		17 and younger	18 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 29	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 44	45 to 49	50 to 54	55 to 59	60 to 64	65 and older
1954	Contractual cash earnings	102.0	81.7	71.0	61.1	47.1	40.5	37.0		36.0		40.5	
1960	Contractual cash earnings	99.6	79.1	68.6	61.4	50.7	.....						
1965	Contractual cash earnings	96.5	83.1	71.5	61.0	53.5	47.9	41.5		43.2		52.6	
	Regular cash earnings	97.8	88.8	78.2	67.1	58.1	52.1	44.7		46.0		54.2	
1970	Contractual cash earnings	91.8	79.9	72.4	60.0	47.2	44.3	42.9		45.1		59.8	
	Regular cash earnings	92.5	87.2	79.5	66.6	52.6	48.7	46.5		48.5		62.7	
1973	Contractual cash earnings	101.6	82.5	74.1	63.8	50.6	46.0	47.7	46.9	45.9	54.4	59.3	60.4
	Regular cash earnings	102.4	90.2	81.9	70.4	56.5	50.0	51.3	50.1	49.1	56.5	61.5	62.2
1974	Contractual cash earnings	.....											
	Regular cash earnings	94.7	91.2	82.8	72.8	60.4	53.1	53.1	54.2	51.3	56.7	64.1	64.8

Note.—Figures in 1973 and 1974 include services.

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Basic Survey of Wage Structure."

Table 33.—Differentials Between Women and Men in Regular Cash Earnings, by Age Group and Length of Service

[Men=100.0]

Age	Total	Under 1 year	1 year	2 years	3 to 4 years	5 to 9 years	10 to 14 years	15 to 19 years	20 to 29 years	30 years and over
Total	59.8	67.2	68.5	67.5	66.7	65.8	65.2	67.3	75.2	84.4
17 and younger	94.7	94.1	93.7	94.0						
18 to 19	91.2	91.1	92.0	89.1	89.4					
20 to 24	82.8	80.6	82.0	83.8	85.8	83.1				
25 to 29	72.8	66.6	70.6	72.3	72.8	78.0	76.5			
30 to 34	60.4	52.8	55.0	57.2	58.5	64.6	72.8	68.8		
35 to 39	50.9	48.2	52.1	51.5	52.9	56.3	65.5	72.8	68.5	
40 to 44	51.2	50.2	52.2	51.2	52.2	55.5	60.8	66.7	78.2	76.0
45 to 49	53.3	51.0	54.0	51.7	53.8	56.9	58.9	65.5	79.4	91.0
50 to 54	60.6	51.4	53.3	51.9	54.2	57.0	60.1	64.3	72.1	85.4
55 to 59	56.7	55.0	54.3	55.1	54.3	57.6	56.3	65.8	72.5	78.6
60 to 64										
65 and over										

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Basic Survey of Wage Structure." (1974)

Table 34.—Monthly Hours and Monthly Days Worked per Employee

[Size of establishment: 30 or more employees]

Year	Hours actually worked per month			Days actually worked per month		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
1955	194.8	187.5	197.4	23.8	23.5	24.0
1960	201.0	192.1	206.8	24.2	23.9	24.3
1965	192.9	181.4	197.8	23.6	23.2	23.8
1970	186.6	174.1	192.7	22.9	22.4	23.2
1971	184.8	173.3	190.2	22.9	22.4	23.1
1972	183.8	172.5	188.9	22.8	22.4	23.0
1973	182.0	169.2	187.8	22.5	22.0	22.7
1974	175.5	163.9	180.6	22.0	21.5	22.2

Note.—In 1970–1974, the figures include services.

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Monthly Labor Survey."

Table 35.—Daily Hours and Weekly Hours Worked per Employee

[Size of establishment: 30 or more employees]

Year	Hours actually worked per day			Hours actually worked per week		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
1955	8.2	8.0	8.2	45.0	43.3	45.6
1960	8.3	8.0	8.5	46.4	44.3	47.7
1965	8.2	7.8	8.3	44.5	41.9	45.6
1970	8.1	7.8	8.3	43.1	40.2	44.5
1971	8.1	7.7	8.2	42.6	40.0	43.9
1972	8.1	7.7	8.2	42.4	39.8	43.6
1973	8.1	7.7	8.3	42.0	39.0	43.3
1974	8.0	7.6	8.1	40.5	37.8	41.7

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Monthly Labor Survey"

Table 36.—Number of Women Who Completed Public Vocational Training [1] and Were Employed, by Subject (1974)

Subject	Basic [2] training	Occupational capacity redevelopment training
Total	1,710	4,216
Sewing	469	568
Tailoring	71	65
Dressmaking	66	286
Kimono sewing		46
Knitting		22
Knitted goods		18
Hairdressing	190	81
Haircutting	99	16
Clerical work	295	1,050
Japanese language typewriting	45	68
English language typewriting		36
Typewriting		377
Electronic computers	19	
Machine cartography	231	80
Construction cartography	94	22
Shipbuilding cartography	21	
Tracing		440
Automobile maintenance	10	35
Electronic equipment	14	6
Measuring instrument	7	5
Ceramic ware manufacturing	4	16
Ceramic ware design	2	25
Platemaking and printing	9	19
Light printing	8	12
Metal press		18
Welding	1	16
Woodworking craft	6	17
Commercial art	4	7
Designing	14	34
Shops	11	0
Cooking		183
Housekeeping		541
Others	19	57

[1] Vocational training which is carried out by the central government, prefectural and municipal governments, and the Employment Promotion Projects Corporation.

[2] Consists of general training course and advanced training course.

Source: Ministry of Labor, Vocational Training Bureau.

Table 37.—Number of Women Trainers in Authorized Vocational Training,[1] by Subject

Subject	1971	1972	1973	1974
Total	9,874	9,940	9,616	9,981
Sewing	70	64	76	88
Tailoring	486	487	443	360
Dressmaking	7,870	7,778	7,269	7,080
Kimono sewing	234	624	784	1,357
Weaving	124	115	88	87
Knitting	.....	25	52	113
Hair cutting	.....	64	102	78
Hairdressing	.....	53	117	109
Confectionery	3	7	16	20
Machine cartography	45	28	41	41
Tuning of spinning machine	538	190	.....	.....
Tuning of weaving machine	314	61	106	65
Platemaking and printing	5	13	18	12
Mounting	1	8	11	12
Bed clothing, etc	26	17	56	35
Retail trade	61	119	168	181
Hotel trade	.....	19	21	23
Clerical work	13	119	74	79
Typing (Japanese)	.....	15	77	35
Others	63	79	21	206

[1] Vocational training which is carried out by an employer, etc., and authorized by the prefectural governor.

Source: Ministry of Labor, Vocational Training Bureau.

Table 38.—Percentage Distribution of Students, by Specialized Subject (1974)

	University			2-year college		
	Total	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Humanities	13.0	36.3	6.8	21.3	24.3	3.2
Social science	41.6	14.7	48.8	11.0	6.9	35.5
Natural science	3.1	2.1	3.4	0	.1	0
Technology	20.6	.8	25.8	7.2	.3	48.4
Agriculture	3.6	1.5	4.2	1.2	.2	7.2
Health service	4.1	7.7	3.1	2.5	2.6	1.5
Mercantile marine	.1	.....	.1	.....	.....	.....
Home economics	3.5	13.9	.8	29.9	34.7	1.8
Teaching	7.1	19.6	3.8	21.4	24.9	.5
Art	.6	.8	.5	3.7	4.0	1.7
Others	2.6	2.5	2.7	1.8	2.1	.2

Source: Ministry of Education, "1974 School Basic Survey."

Table 39.—Women Who Gave Up Work, by Reasons for Changes in Employment Status

[1,000 persons]

Year	Total	Lay-off, dissolution, or bankruptcy of the company	Job was temporary or unstable	Labor condition was bad	Living condition was improved	Retirement	Illness or old age	Marriage	Taking care of children	Others
1956	284	1	3	3	.....	200			76	
1959	565	62	39	30	3	91			326	
1962	844	44	24	22	8	241			506	
1965	710	34	21	17	3	93			542	
1968	928	39	33	65	3	117		273	208	189
1971	1,067	48	36	73	5	12	123	320	230	220
1974	1,625	58	58	80	.....	14	284	705		427

Source: Office of the Prime Minister, "Employment Status Survey."

Table 40.—Number of Day Nurseries and Admissions

	Total (A)	Public (B)	Private	B/A×100
Facilities:				*Percent*
1955	8,321	4,232	4,089	50.9
1965	11,199	6,888	4,360	61.5
1970	14,101	8,817	5,284	62.5
1973	16,140	10,066	6,074	62.4
1974	16,534	10,354	6,180	62.6
Number of children:				
1955	653,727	340,936	312,791	52.2
1965	829,740	498,872	326,334	60.1
1970	1,131,361	690,344	441,017	61.0
1973	1,375,567	843,733	531,834	61.3
1974	1,422,555	873,197	549,358	61.1

Note.—The figures for 1955, 1965, and 1970 are for December 31; those for 1973, April 1; and those for 1974, March 1.
Source: Ministry of Health and Welfare.

Table 41.—Percentage of Enterprises Establishing Nursing Facilities in the Enterprise

Size of establishment	1971	1973
Total	1.7	3.2
30 to 99 employees	.9	2.4
100 to 499 employees	3.2	4.9
500 or more employees	7.3	9.8

Source: Ministry of Labor, "Report of Maternal Protection."

Table 42.—Percentage of Children of Working Mothers, by Form of Day Care

Type of child care	Age		
	0	1 to 2	3 to 6
PRESCHOOL CHILDREN:			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Day child care center	8	16	37
Family takes care of children	56	55	31
Nursery school			29
Placed in care of neighbor	13	11	4
Left at home alone		4	7
Others	26	17	9

SCHOOL-AGE CHILDREN:	*Percent*
Employed during school hours	21
Employed during and after school hours	70
At home alone or with brothers	46
At home with other families	24
Attend private school	6
Placed in care of neighbor	9
At facility for care of school-age children	2
With mother	4
Others	4

Source: Ministry of Labor and Office of the Prime Minister, "Survey of Public Opinion of Working Mothers for Employment and Child Care." (1967)

SELECTED LEGISLATION RELATED TO WOMEN WORKERS—Part 2

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CONSTITUTION OF JAPAN

(November 3, 1946)

—Extract—

Chapter III. Rights and Duties of the People

Article 14. All of the people are equal under the law and there shall be no discrimination in political, economic, or social relations because of race, creed, sex, social status, or family origin.

Peers and peerage shall not be recognized.

No privilege shall accompany any award of honor, decoration, or any distinction, nor shall any such award be valid beyond the lifetime of the individual who now holds or hereafter may receive it.

Article 22. Every person shall have freedom to choose and change his residence and to choose his occupation to the extent that it does not interfere with the public welfare.

Freedom of all persons to move to a foreign country and to divest themselves of their nationality shall be inviolate.

Article 26. All people shall have the right to receive an equal education correspondent to their ability, as provided by law.

All people shall be obligated to have all boys and girls under their protection receive ordinary education as provided for by law. Such compulsory education shall be free.

Article 27. All people shall have the right and the obligation to work.

Standards for wages, hours, rest and other working conditions shall be fixed by law.

Children shall not be exploited.

Article 28. The right of workers to organize and to bargain and act collectively is guaranteed.

LABOR STANDARDS LAW

(Law No. 49 of April 7, 1947)

—Extract—

Chapter I. General Provisions

(Equal Treatment)

Article 3. No employer shall discriminate against or for any worker by reason of nationality, creed, or social status in wages, working hours, and other working conditions.

(Equal Wages for Men and Women)

Article 4. The employer shall not discriminate women against men concerning wages by reason of the worker being a woman.

(Prohibition of forced labor)

Chapter VI. Women and Minor Workers

(Minimum Age)

Article 56. Minors under full 15 years old shall not be employed as workers.

2. Regardless of the provision of the preceding paragraph, children above full 12 years old may be employed in occupations in enterprises which come under Article 8, item (6) to item (17) inclusive, in light labor which is not injurious to the health and welfare of the children, outside of the school hours of the children under the permission of the administrative office. However, this is the same in regard to children under full 12 years old employed in motion-picture production and dramatic performance enterprise.

(Certificate of Minors)

Article 57. The employer shall keep the census register which proves the age of the minors under full 18 years old at the working place.

2. Concerning the children who come under paragraph 2 of the preceding Article, the employer shall keep certificate issued by school-master to prove that the employment does not hinder the schooling of the children, and the document to prove the consent of the parent or the guardian at the working place.

(Labor Contracts of the Minor)

Article 58. The parent or the guardian shall not make a labor contract in place of the minor.

2. The parent or the guardian and the administrative office are authorized to cancel the contract for the future if they consider it unfair to the minor.

Article 59. The minor has the right to receive wages independently, the parent or the guardian shall not receive as proxy the wage earned by the minor.

(Working Hours and Rest of Minors)

Article 60. Article 32 paragraph 2, Article 36 and Article 40 shall not apply to minors under full 18 years old.

2. Concerning the children who come under Article 56 paragraph 2, the working hours of Article 32 paragraph 1 are replaced as seven hours a day, forty-two hours a week, including school hours.

3. Regardless of Article 32 paragraph 1, working hours for minors above full 15 years old and under full 18 years old, may be extended to 10 hours a day, in case the employer reduces the working hours of one day in a week to 4 hours and the total working hours of a week do not exceed 48 hours.

(Working Hours and Rest Days of Women)

Article 61. The employer shall not employ women above full 18 years old overtime more than 2 hours a day, 6 hours a week, and 150 hours a year, and not employ them on rest days even though the employer reaches the agreement under Article 36. However, the employer may, where such women are to be engaged in the works of preparation of lists of properties, balance-sheet or statement of profit and loss, and other works of calculation and preparation of statements, etc. needed for the settlements of accounts, irrespective of the limits of 6 hours a week, employ them in overtime work not exceeding 12 hours in 2 weeks.

(Midnight Labor)

Article 62. The employer shall not employ minors under full 18 years old or women between the hours of 10 p.m. and 5 a.m. However, this shall not apply when the male over full 16 years old is employed by shift system.

2. When work is done in shifts and the competent Minister deems it necessary, he may change the hours of the preceding paragraph into from 11 p.m. to 6 a.m. specifying the area and the season.

3. When work is done in shifts, the employer may employ these workers till 10:30 p.m. regardless of the provisions of paragraph 1 or from 5:30 a.m. regardless of the stipulation of the preceding paragraph under the sanction of the administrative office.

4. The three foregoing paragraphs shall not apply when the employer extends the working hour or employs the worker on rest days by the stipulation of Article 33, and to those enterprises which come under items (6), (7), (13), and (14) of Article 8 and to telephone or other jobs specified by Ordinance with resolution of the Central Labor Standards Council, as not being injurious to the health and welfare of women. However, this shall not apply to minors under full 18 years old employed in the enterprise of item (14).

5. In applying paragraph 1 to children who come under Article 56 paragraph 2, principal clause, the hour of paragraph 1 is replaced as from 8 p.m. to 5 a.m. and in applying paragraph 2 as from 9 p.m. to 6 a.m.

(Restriction on Dangerous and Harmful Jobs)

Article 63. The employer shall not allow minors under full 18 years old and women to clean, oil, examine, or repair the dangerous part of any machinery or transmission apparatus in motion, or to put on or to take off the driving belts or ropes of any machinery or transmission apparatus in motion, or to handle the derrick drive by power, or to perform any other dangerous work, nor to engage in jobs which require the conveyance of heavy weight goods specified by Ordinance.

2. The employer shall not employ minors under full 18 years old in work involving the handling of poisons, powerful drugs, or other injurious substances, or explosive, combustible or inflammable goods, or in places where dust and powder, or harmful gas and radial rays are generated, in places of high temperatures and pressures, or other places which are dangerous or injurious to the safety, health, and welfare of the minor.

3. The stipulation of the preceding paragraph may be applied by Ordinance to women over full 18 years old who are engaged in certain jobs specified in the same paragraph.

4. The scope of the work described in paragraph 2 and the scope of application by the preceding paragraph shall be decided by Ordinance.

(Ban on Underground Labor)

Article 64. The employer shall not employ minors under full 18 years old or women in underground labor.

(Before and After Childbirth)

Article 65. The employer shall not employ a woman for 6 weeks before childbirth when she requests rest days during the period.

2. The employer shall not employ a woman within 6 weeks after childbirth. However, when the woman requests employment after 5 weeks, it is permissible to assign her to a job that the doctor pronounces unharmful to her.

3. When the pregnant woman requires, the employer shall change her to a lighter job.

(Nursing Period)

Article 66. A woman nursing a baby less than one year old may obtain nursing time, twice a day, each at least thirty minutes during the working hours, besides the recess mentioned in Article 34.

2. The employer shall not employ the woman during the nursing time mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

(Menstruation Leave)

Article 67. The employer shall not employ a woman who suffers heavily from menstruation or a woman employed in jobs injurious to menstruation if she requests a menstruation leave.

2. The scope of the job mentioned in the preceding paragraph shall be determined by Ordinance.

(Fare for Returning Home)

Article 68. The employers shall bear the necessary fare in case minors under full 18 years old or women wish to return home within 14 days after dismissal. However, this does not apply if minors under full 18 years old or women were dismissed by reason for which they are responsible and if the employer receives authorization from the administrative office after explaining the grounds for dismissal.

WORKING WOMEN'S WELFARE LAW

(July 1, 1972)

(Provisional Translation)

Chapter I. General Provisions

(Purpose)

Article 1. The purpose of this law is to clarify the fundamental principle concerning the welfare of working women and to promote measures including increase of vocational guidance, encouragement of training, promoting harmony between working life and home work such as nursing and domestic duties, and establishment of welfare facilities, and thereby to further the welfare and to improve the status of working women.

(Fundamental Idea)

Article 2. In view of the fact that working women are the persons who have an important role in nursing children who are the support and drivers of the future world, and who are contributing to the development of the economy and society, they shall deserve to have the appropriate considerations which help them secure harmony between working life and home life, and to secure a working life with a sense of fulfillness, by making best use of their abilities, with their maternity respected and yet without discriminatory treatment by sex.

Article 3. Working women themselves shall endeavor to have awareness as persons engaged in work, and of their own accord to develop and make best use of their abilities in working life.

(Responsibilities of the Persons Concerned)

Article 4. An employer shall endeavor to promote the welfare of the working women whom he employs.

2. The State and local public bodies shall endeavor to promote the welfare of working women.

3. When an employer takes appropriate measures to promote the welfare of the women workers whom he employs, or when the State and local public bodies enforce appropriate policies to promote the welfare of working women, they shall endeavor to consider that the fundamental idea provided by the preceding two articles shall be realized by means of such measures or policies.

(Organization of Campaigns)

Article 5. The State and local public bodies, in order to increase interest and understanding among the nation for the welfare of working women, to elevate the awareness of working women, and especially to remove the factors which prevent working women from making the best use of their abilities, shall conduct necessary educational campaigns.

Chapter II. The Basic Policy of Actions for the Welfare of Working Women

Article 6. The Minister of Labor shall institute the basic policy concerning the measures for the welfare of working women (to be called "the basic policy of actions for the welfare of working women" hereinafter).

2. The matters which will be stated in the basic policy of actions for the welfare of working women shall include:

(1) Matters pertaining to the trend of the working life and home life of working women; and

(2) Basic matters pertaining to the measures to be implemented in relation to promotion of the welfare for working women.

3. The basic policy of actions for the welfare of working women shall be instituted, with respect to the working conditions, opinions, and the employment situation by age and marital status of working women.

4. The Minister of Labor, in drawing up the basic policy of actions for the welfare of working women, shall hear the opinions of the Advisory Commission on Women's and Minors' Problems and also seek the opinions of Prefectural Governors, in advance.

5. The Minister of Labor shall, when he has instituted the basic policy of actions for the welfare or working women, make public its outline, without delay.

6. The provisions of the preceding two paragraphs shall apply *mutatis mutandis* to alterations of the basic policy of actions for the welfare of working women.

Chapter III. Measures for Welfare

(Vocational Guidance, etc.)

Article 7. Employment security organs, in order to help working women choose, with ease, occupations suitable to their vocational aptitude, abilities, experiences, and skills, and adapt themselves to their occupations, for working women and persons concerned, shall take appropriate measures such as presentation of the information of employment and the findings of research concerning the vocation, et cetera, and conducting of vocational guidance proper to their aptitude.

(Vocational Training)

Article 8. The State, local public bodies, and Employment Promotion Projects Corporation shall, in order to promote working women to get necessary skills, including the knowledge concerning this, for their work, and to improve their abilities, and also in order to secure the opportunity of vocational training equally for women workers, endeavor to conduct educational campaigns concerning vocational training for working women and also persons concerned, as well as to take appropriate measures necessary to facilitate the training or working women, such as making better arrangements of facilities.

(Arrangements and Measures Concerning Health Control During Pregnancy and After Childbirth)

Article 9. An employee shall endeavor to make arrangements to enable the working women whom he employs to have hours necessary for health guidance and examinations provided for by the Maternal and Child Health Law (Law No. 141, 1965).

Article 10. An employer shall endeavor, in order to enable the working women whom he employs to observe the directions based on health guidance and examinations provided for in the preceding article, to take appropriate measures including alteration of working hours and change to lighter jobs.

(Provision of Conveniences for Child Care)

Article 11. An employer shall endeavor, for the working women whom he employs, as necessary, to provide conveniences for child care, including the approval of child care leave (to mean that an employer allows the women workers with babies or children to leave for child care for a fixed period, on the request of such by the working women whom he employs).

(Counseling, Courses, etc.).

Article 12. The State and local public bodies, for working women, for the purpose of furtherance of their culture as workers and promotion of harmony between working life and home life, shall endeavor to take appropriate measures such as necessary guidance, counseling, and courses.

Chapter IV. Facilities for Welfare

(Welfare Centers for Working Women)

Article 13. The local public bodies, as needed, shall endeavor to set up welfare centers for working women.

2. The purpose of welfare centers for working women is to conduct comprehensively the works concerning the welfare of working women including counseling, guidance courses, and exercise and to provide conveniences for rest and recreation.

3. The Minister of Labor shall decide the desirable standards of establishments and managements of welfare centers for working women.

(Advisor at the Welfare Center for Working Women)

Article 14. At the welfare center for working women, they shall endeavor to place the officers who take charge of counseling and guidance for working women (to be called "advisor at the welfare center for working women" hereinafter).

2. Advisor at the welfare center for working women shall be appointed out of persons who have zeal and learning regarding the work, and also who have the qualifications provided by the Minister of Labor.

Chapter V. Miscellaneous Provisions

(Advice of the State, et cetera)

Article 15. The State shall endeavor to conduct necessary assistance and guidance to promote the works to further the welfare of working women, such as advice and guidance.

(Research, et cetera)

Article 16. The Minister of Labor shall undertake necessary research relating to the working life and home life of working women.

2. The Minister of Labor, in relation to the enforcement of this law, is entitled to request the heads of the administrative organs concerned with such cooperation as presentation of necessary information and materials.

3. The Minister of Labor, in relation to the enforcement of this law, is entitled to request the prefectural governors to present the necessary reports of research.

EMPLOYMENT SECURITY LAW

(November 30, 1947)

—Extract—

Chapter I. General Provisions

(Equitable Treatment)

Article 3. No one shall be discriminated against in employment exchange, vocational guidance, etc., because of race, nationality, political or religious belief, sex, social status, family origin, previous profession, affiliation or non-affiliation with a labor union, et cetera.

The terms of agreements entered into between employers and unions in accordance with the Trade Union Law shall not be considered to be in conflict with the above provision.

TRADE UNION LAW

(June 1, 1949)

—Extract—

Chapter II. Trade Unions

(Treatment of an Organization Which Has Been Formed as a Trade Union)

Article 5.

2. The constitution of the trade union shall include provisions provided for in each of the following items:

(4) In no event shall any one be disqualified for union membership because of race, religion, sex, social status, or family origin.

NATIONAL PUBLIC SERVICE LAW

(May 15, 1952)

—Extract—

(Principle of Equal Treatment)

Article 27. In the application of this law, all of the people shall be accorded equal treatment and shall not be discriminated against by reason of race, religious faith, sex, social status, family origin, or political opinions or affiliation, except as provided in item 5 of article 38.

LOCAL PUBLIC SERVICE LAW

(December 13, 1950)

—Extract—

(Principle of Equal Treatment)

Article 13. In the application of this law, all of the people must be treated equally and must not be discriminated against because of race, creed, sex, social status, or family origin, or because of political opinion or political affiliation except for the cases provided in article 16, item 5.

EXPLANATION OF STATISTICAL SURVEYS—Part 3

Population Census

Introduction.—The population censuses in Japan have been conducted almost every five years since 1920.

Date of census.—The population census is conducted on the first of October.

Population enumerated in the census.—The census is taken to enumerate the so-called *de jure* population. The *de jure* population refers to those persons who are usually living in an area on the date of the census, and are counted as the population of that area. The wording "persons usually living" was defined in the census as those persons who had or would have lived for 3 months or more at their respective household.

Enumeration items.—The main items contained in the census are as follows:

For a household member:

(1) Name
(2) Relationship to the head of the household
(3) Sex
(4) Month and year of birth
(5) Nationality
(6) Marital status
(7) Education
(8) Type of activities
(9) Employment status
(10) Name of establishment and the kind of business or industry
(11) Kind of work
(12) Means of transportation to work or to attend school

For a household:

(13) Type of household
(14) Type of house.

Census organization.—The census is conducted within the jurisdiction of mayors or heads of the municipalities, i.e., *shi* (city), *ku* (ward), *machi* (town) and *mura* (village), supervised by governors of the prefectures, i.e., "*to*," "*do*," "*fu*" and "*ken*," and planned and administered by the Bureau of Statistics, Office of the Prime Minister.

Employment Status Survey

Purpose of the survey.—The Employment Status Survey has been conducted every 3 years since 1956. The purpose of the survey is to study the basic structure of employment status of the population in Japan and to provide detailed information on the labor mobility.

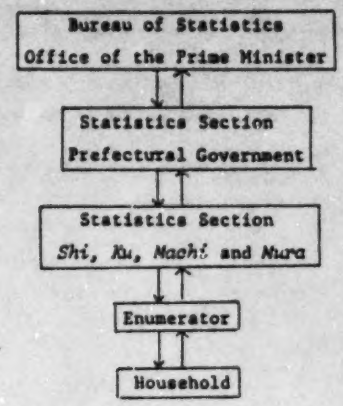
To determine the employment status of each person, the "usual status approach" was adopted in this survey, rather than the actual status approach which is employed in the Labor Force Survey and the Population Censuses.

This is based on the consideration that the "actual status approach"is not a satisfactory method of studying the employment structure in depth.

Date of the survey.—The survey is conducted as of July 1.

Population coverage and area coverage.—Questions concerning employment status were asked for all persons 15 years old and over usually living in the sample households.

Organization and method of the survey.—The survey is conducted through the agencies shown below.



Labor Force Survey

Purpose of survey.—The Labor Force Survey has been conducted every month since 1946, for the purpose of obtaining data concerning the current employment status of the population.

Coverage.—This survey is carried out on a sample basis: The employment status of about 70,000 persons of 15 years old and over, residing in about 26,000 sample households, is surveyed.

Reference period.—The survey week is a week ending on the last day of each month (20th to 26th for December).

Method.—Preceding the survey week, the enumerators visit the selected households to ask the household heads to fill in the labor force survey schedule. Right after the survey week, the enumerators visit the households again to collect the schedule.

Enumeration items.—The main items contained in the Census are as follows:

Employment status.
Major activities.
Kind of household.
Relationship to household head.
Occupational status.
Age groups.
Marital status.
Occupation.
Industry of the establishment.
Number of persons engaged at the establishment.

Monthly Labor Survey

Purpose of survey.—The purpose of the survey is to collect monthly data on employment, wages, and hours of work, for the country as a whole and for every prefecture.

Coverage and method.—This survey covers establishments employing usually 30 and more regular employees in private and public sectors in mining; construction; manufacturing; wholesale and retail trades; finance and insurance; real estate; transport and communication; electricity, gas and water; and services. A sample of 16,700 establishments, totaling about 5.2 million employees, is taken from the establishments list compiled for the 1969 Establishment Census by means of a stratified one-stage sampling (stratification according to industry and size of establishments).

Period.—The survey is conducted at the end of every month, or as of the last payday of every month if the day is stipulated in wage regulations or agreement.

Basic Survey on Wage Structure

Purpose of survey.—The survey aims at obtaining a clear picture of the wage structure of regular employees in major industries, that is, wage distributions by industrial group, region, size of enterprise, type of regular employees, sex, occupation, type of employment, educational attainment, age, duration of service, and occupational career.

Coverage:

1. Region:
   Whole country.
2. Industry:
   a. Mining.
   b. Construction.
   c. Manufacturing.
   d. Wholesale and retail trades.
   e. Finance and insurance.
   f. Real estate.
   g. Transport and communication.
   h. Electricity, gas, water, and steam.
   i. Services.
3. Establishments:
   Establishments with 10 or more regular employees.

Date and period.—This survey is conducted as of June 30 every year (if the end day of payroll period is fixed, as of the last end of payroll period in June) for facts in a fixed time such as educational attainment, age, service period, and occupational career. This survey is conducted as for June 1–30 (if the end day of payroll period is fixed, as for 1 month ending the last end day of payroll period in June) for facts continuing for some time, such as days worked, hours worked, contractual cash earnings, and overtime payment. But for other special cash earnings, the survey is conducted for the period January 1 to December 31 (as for workers employed in the course of the period, the survey is conducted for 1 year beginning the day of engagement or the period until June 30).

Method.—Statistical and research members of prefectural labor standards inspection offices carry out the survey by visiting the establishments.

EXPLANATION OF TERMS—Part 4

Labor force.—Persons 15 years and over who have will and ability to work, classified as employed and totally unemployed.

Employed.—"Employed" persons refer to all persons who did any work during the week before the census date for pay or profit, such as wage, salary, allowance, business profit, et cetera, as well as persons who had a job or business but did not work at all during the week before the census date because of vacation, illness, bad weather, labor dispute, or personal reasons. The latter are included in "Employed" only when one of the following conditions is satisfied:

(1) The employee whose absence from work did not extend over 30 days up to the census date, or who received or expected to receive wage or salary during the week before the census date.

(2) The self-employed worker whose absence from work did not extend over 30 days up to the census date.

"Employed" persons include, therefore, not only persons working as employees of a company, factory, store, government office, et cetera, proprietors of their own farms, stores, factories, et cetera, but also persons working in the family business on a farm, in a store, private hospital, and so forth, even though they were not paid any wages. It does not matter whether they worked mainly during the week or worked subsidiarily while keeping house, attending school, and so forth.

Unemployed.—"Unemployed" persons refer to those who had no job but were able to work and actually seeking a job during the week before the census date.

The term "labor force" is a general term covering "employed" and "unemployed."

Not in labor force.—Persons not in labor force comprise all persons who had no job and did not make any positive effort to find a job during the week before the census date or were unable to work; among such persons are included those who were unable to work because of illness or old age, those making their living on revenues from assets, old age pensions, et cetera, or those mainly keeping house or attending school.

Ratio of totally unemployed in labor force

(Totally unemployed)÷(Labor force)×100(%)

Labor force participation rate

(Labor force)÷(Population 15 years and over)×100(%)

Employment Status

Self-employed workers.—Persons who own and operate unincorporated enterprises. Self-employed workers are divided into "self-employed workers with employees" and "self-employed workers without employee."

Self-employed workers with employees.—Self-employed workers who usually employ one or more employees (including day laborers) in their enterprises.

Self-employed workers without employee.—Self-employed workers who operate their own businesses alone or only with members of the family.

Family workers.—Persons who work in an unincorporated enterprise operated by a member of the family.

Employees.—Persons who work for wages or profit as employees of unincorporated enterprise, company, corporation or association, and government. Employees are classified into regular employees, temporary employees, and day laborers according to the type of employment.

Regular employees.—Employees who have a contract of employment without a specific period of employment or for a specific period of more than a year.

Temporary employees.—Paid employees who are employed for a specific period of a month or more but not more than a year.

Day laborers.—Paid employees who are employed on a daily basis or for a specific period of less than a month.

Industry

Industry of an employed person refers to the kind of business of the establishment where employed during the week before census date. In case of a person who was "absent from work," industry refers to the kind of business of the establishment from which he or she was absent. If a person worked in two or more establishments, "industry" was decided by that of the establishment where he or she worked most.

Industrial Classification (Medium Groups)

A. Agriculture
   (1) Agriculture
B. Forestry and hunting
   (2) Forestry and hunting
C. Fishery and aquaculture
   (3) Fishery and aquaculture
D. Mining
   (4) Mining
E. Construction
   (5) Construction
F. Manufacturing
   (6) Food and tobacco manufactures
   (7) Textile mill products (excludes apparel and other finished products made from fabrics and similar materials)
   (8) Apparel and other finished products made from fabrics and similar materials
   (9) Lumber and wood products (except furniture)
   (10) Furniture and fixtures
   (11) Pulp, paper, and finished allied products
   (12) Publishing, printing, and related industries
   (13) Chemical and related industries
   (14) Petroleum and coal products
   (15) Rubber products
   (16) Leather and their products, fur
   (17) Stone, clay, glass, and pottery products
   (18) Iron, steel, and non-ferrous metal industries
   (19) Fabricated metal products
   (20) Machinery and weapons
   (21) Electrical machinery, equipment, and supplies
   (22) Transportation equipment
   (23) Precision machine
   (24) Miscellaneous manufacturing industries
G. Wholesale and retail trade
   (25) Wholesale trade
   (26) Department stores
   (27) Retail trade—dry goods, apparel, and accessories
   (28) Retail trade—food and grocery stores
   (29) Eating and drinking places
   (30) Retail trade—furniture, fixture and household utensils
   (31) Miscellaneous retail trade
H. Finance and insurance
   (32) Finance and insurance
I. Real estate
   (33) Real estate
J. Transport and communication
   (34) Transportation and warehousing
   (35) Communication

K. Electricity, gas, and water
(36) Electricity, gas, and water
L. Services
(37) Personal services
(38) Amusement and recreation services
(39) Broadcasting
(40) Repair services
(41) Business services
(42) Medical, other health services, and sewage cleaning
(43) Educational services
(44) Miscellaneous services
M. Government
(45) Government
N. Unclassifiable
(46) Unclassifiable

Occupation

"Occupation" of an employed person refers to the kind of work he or she actually did during the week before the census date. In case of a person who was "absent from work," "occupation" refers to the kind of work the person was usually doing in the establishment from which he or she was absent. If a person was engaged in two or more jobs, the kind of work was decided by the work in which the person was mainly engaged.

Occupational Classification (Medium Groups)

A. Professional and technical workers
(1) Scientific investigators
(2) Engineers and technicians
(3) Medical and public health technicians
(4) Judicial workers
(5) Registered accountants
(6) Professors and teachers
(7) Religious workers
(8) Authors, reporters, and editors
(9) Fine artists, designers, and photographers
(10) Musicians, stage artists, and professional sportsmen
(11) Miscellaneous professional and technical workers
B. Managers and officials
(12) Government officials
(13) Directors of companies and corporations
(14) Other managers and administrators
C. Clerical and related workers
(15) General clerical workers
(16) Outdoor clerical workers
(17) Other clerical and related workers
D. Sales workers
(18) Sales workers of commodities
(19) Sales related workers
E, F. Farmers, lumbermen, and fishermen
(20) Farmers and lumbermen
(21) Fishermen and kindred workers
G. Workers in mining and quarrying occupations
(22) Workers in mining and quarrying occupations
H. Workers in transport and communications occupations
(23) Workers operating land transport
(24) Workers operating marine and air transport
(25) Other workers operating transport
(26) Communication workers

I. Craftsmen, production process workers, and laborers
- (27) Metal material workers
- (28) Metal processing, machine repairing, and assembling workers
- (29) General machine assembling and repairing workers
- (30) Electric machine assembling and repairing workers
- (31) Transportation equipment assembling and repairing workers
- (32) Meter and optical instrument assembling and repairing workers
- (33) Silk reel and textile workers
- (34) Garment and related textile fabrics workers
- (35) Wood, bamboo, grass, and vine products workers
- (36) Pulp, paper, and paper products workers
- (37) Printing and bookbinding workers
- (38) Rubber and plastic products workers
- (39) Leather and leather products workers
- (40) Ceramic, clay, and stone products workers
- (41) Food and beverage manufacturing workers
- (42) Chemical products workers
- (43) Construction workers
- (44) Stationary engine and construction machinery operators
- (45) Electrical workers
- (46) Miscellaneous craftsmen and production process workers
- (47) Laborers not elsewhere classified

J. Protective service workers
- (48) Protective service workers

K. Service workers
- (49) Domestic service workers
- (50) Personal service workers
- (51) Miscellaneous service workers

L. Unclassifiable
- (52) Unclassifiable

Accessions.—Those who are hired during the survey period under a newly concluded employment contract.

Separations.—Those whose employment contract is terminated during the survey period.

Household

Ordinary household.—A group of two or more persons who share living quarters and living expenses.

One-person household.—A person who lives alone in a house or who, as a lodger, occupies a room or rooms in part of a private house, or who lives in a hostel, a boarding house, and the like.

Marital status

Classification of marital status is based on the actual status regardless of legal status.

Never married.—A person who has never married.

Married.—A person who is married.

Widowed and divorced.—A person who is widowed or divorced and who is single.

Level of education

Level of education consists of two items: "Attending school or completed" and if completed "Type of the highest school completed."

Persons never attended school.—Persons who have neither attended nor enrolled in any school.

Persons attending school.—Persons who are now attending or enrolled in school.

Persons completed school.—Persons who have completed school and are now not attending or enrolled in any school.

Type of the highest school completed.—Three types are set up; "Never attended school, Elementary school and junior high school," "Senior high school," and "Junior college, college and university." As there are various types of schools, including similarly named schools with different years of school completed, it is difficult to compare the old system with the current system with respect to the years of school completed.

Hours worked.—The number of hours actually worked by the employee during the survey period. Rest pauses, both paid and unpaid, are excluded.

Days worked.—The number of days during the survey period on which the employee actually attended the establishment. Though the worker may be paid for some days on which he or she does not attend, these are not counted. But if he or she works for at least one hour between zero a.m. and twelve p.m., the day is counted as one worked.

Average weekly hours worked.—Refers to the average total hours per employed person at work which he or she actually worked during the survey week. If the employee worked on two or more jobs during the survey week, all the hours worked on each job are summed up.

Cash earnings.—Money earned before income tax, social insurance contribution, union dues, payment for purchased commodities, etc.

Contractual cash earnings.—Earnings paid on the basis of method and conditions previously determined by labor contracts, collective agreements, or wage regulations of establishments.

Special cash payments.—Amount actually paid to the employee during the survey period for extraordinary or emergent cases without any previous agreement, contract, or rule. Retroactive payment of wages for past months as a result of a new agreement is also included.

Though their terms and amounts are fixed by collective agreements, payments such as summer and year-end bonuses which are paid for each period longer than 3 months, and allowances such as marriage allowance which are paid for unforeseen events are included.

Total cash earnings.—Total of "Contractual cash earnings" and "Special cash payments."

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